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ABSTRACT

English is not the most widely spoken language in the world, but it is the most widely used by non-native speakers, making the teaching of English as a Second Language a very important endeavor. This book provides an overview of English language teaching, giving the reader a general background on the issues related to language teaching--particularly language acquisition. Topics covered include the following: reasons why people study English; the history of language teaching methodology; fundamentals of language learning and acquisition for both first and second languages; the relationship between language and other skills; the importance of instructor teaching plans; teaching of the four skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing); teaching vocabulary; teaching about English-speaking cultures; and the role of evaluation in teaching (techniques for doing it effectively and how to use such information). The book also includes chapters on using technology in the classroom; how to find and use the resources available from teacher professional organizations; professional development; and a guide to information available via the Internet. There is also an appendix about the Web resource offered by the authors, "On-Line Resources and Journals Related to ELT, Linguistics, and Communication." (KFT)

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Fundamentals of English Language Teaching

S. Kathleen Kitao, PhD
Kenji Kitao, PhD

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Fundamentals of English Language Teaching

S. Kathleen Kitao, PhD
Kenji Kitao, PhD

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Eichosha, Kusaka Bldg., 2-28 Kanda Jimbocho, Chiyoda-ku, Tokyo 101-0051
Phone 03-3263-1641 Fax 03-3263-6174
e-mail: eichosha@po.sphere.ne.jp

Introduction

While English is not the most widely spoken language in the world, it is the most widely used by non-native speakers, making the teaching of English as a second or foreign language a very important endeavor. The purpose of this textbook is to give an overview of English language teaching. This book is intended for teachers and students of English and people who have a general interest in English language teaching. It is intended to give you a general background on some issues related to language teaching, particularly language acquisition, as well as an overview of practical language teaching, including the teaching of the four skills and evaluation of language students. It is intended to give you up-to-date information about language teaching and related topics.

In the first chapter, we discuss the importance of English as a world language, what non-native speakers use English for, and reasons why people study English. Next, we discuss the history of language teaching methodology, with an emphasis on the 19th and 20th centuries. This gives you an idea of some of the issues in language teaching in the past and how these have influenced modern language teaching. Language teaching methods are divided between two chapters. In these chapters, we discuss formal language teaching methods that have been influential. We look at the principles governing each method and the techniques that are involved. Chapter 5 deals with language learning and acquisition, both of first and second languages. In this chapter, we discuss the relationship between language and other skills and the relationship between first and second language learning.

Chapter 6 explains the importance of teaching plans and what should be included in them. Teaching plans are useful in helping you keep your eyes on the goals that you have set for the course and on the relationships between your goals and the activities and explanations you have selected. The following six chapters deal with the teaching of the four skills—speaking, listening, reading, and writing—and with teaching vocabulary and teaching about English speaking cultures. Both general principles and specific activities are discussed. The following chapter discusses materials and the role that they play in language teaching. Chapter 14 covers the role of evaluation in language teaching and techniques for evaluating students. The chapter begins with a discussion of why evaluation is important, and is followed by suggestions for ways of evaluating students and finally a discussion of how to use the results of the evaluation.

The book concludes with chapters on using technology (computers, video cassette players, etc.), on resources for language teachers, including organizations for language teachers and resources available on the computer networks, and on professional development. There is also an appendix with information about our web resource, "On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication."

We hope that this book will help you gain some background in English language teaching and give you a better understanding of both what goes on in the classroom and how you can prepare yourself effectively.

* * * * * * * * *

We would like to express our appreciation to Natsumi Wakamoto of Doshisha Women's College, Joan Headrick-Miller of Kinran Junior College, and Richard Hogeboom of Doshisha Women's College for reading this book and making valuable comments.

S. Kathleen Kitao, PhD
Kenji Kitao, PhD

May 1999
Kyoto, Japan

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Chapter 1

Why Study English?

Keywords

number of English speakers
widespread use of English
importance of English
English for news and information
English for business, diplomacy, and the professions
English for entertainment
English in Japan

Introduction

English is not the most widely spoken language in the world, but it is the most widely studied language. Why do people study English, as opposed to other subjects? Or as opposed to other foreign languages? These are very basic questions, but ones that are useful to consider occasionally. In this chapter, we will explore some of the reasons people study English.

The Importance of English

English is not the most widely spoken language in the world in terms of the number of native speakers—there are many more Chinese speakers than native English speakers, but Chinese is spoken little outside of Chinese communities. English is the most widespread language in use in the world. It is difficult to determine exactly how many English speakers there are, but according to one estimate, there are more than 350,000,000 native English speakers and more than 400,000,000 speakers of English as a second language (a language used in everyday life, even though it is not the native language) or foreign language (a language studied but not used much in everyday life).

However, even these numbers do not really indicate how important English is as a world language, because according to this estimate, less than fifteen percent of the world population uses English. The importance of English is not just in how many people speak it but in what it is used for. English is the major language of news and information in the world. It is the language of business and government even in some countries where it is a minority language. It is the language of maritime communication and international air traffic control, and it is used even for internal air traffic control in countries where it is not a native language. American popular culture—primarily movies and music—carries the English language throughout the world. For these reasons, among others, it is the most widely studied language in the world.

English Around the World

English as a First or Second Language

In some countries, English is the sole or dominant language. It has this role in the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and Ireland. In other countries, English is widely used, particularly among people who have no other language in common, even though it is not the dominant language of the country. For example, English is widely used in Hong Kong, Singapore, Nigeria, the Philippines, and Malaysia. In such countries, it is often used as a means of communication between people who have different native languages. There are also countries where it is not spoken by a great many people, but where it is considered an elite language and therefore a "passport" to higher education and to financial and professional success. India is an important example of such a country.

English as a Foreign Language

In contrast, in most other countries in the world, English is a foreign language. That is, it is not a language that is used for communication in everyday life, but rather one that is studied in the classroom. In these countries, however, English may be studied for entrance examinations, as a hobby, in preparation for overseas travel, and so on. While English may be available in the form of popular culture, relatively few people in these countries are likely to become proficient in English, though some do. Among the countries where English is a foreign language are Japan, Korea, China, Germany and most other European countries.

Uses of English

English for News and Information

English is commonly used as a medium for the communication of information and news. Three quarters of all telex messages and telegrams are sent in English. Eighty percent of computer data are processed and stored in English. Much satellite communication is carried in English. News broadcasts are available in English through CNN, the BBC, and other networks. Many large hotels throughout the world have these networks, and they even come into people's homes. Five thousand newspapers, more than half of the newspapers published in the world, are published in English. Even in many countries where English is a minority language, there is at least one newspaper in English. In India alone, there are three thousand magazines published in English. In many countries, television news is broadcast in English. Because of the power of television, demonstrators in every country use signs printed in English for the benefit of the international press.

English for Business, Diplomacy, and the Professions

English is a major language of international business, diplomacy, and science and the professions. It is the language that an Iranian businessperson and a Japanese businessperson are likely to use to communicate. Important commodities such as silver, tin, and hard currency are traded in English. English is also an official language, or the official language, of many international organizations, including the United Nations and many professional organizations. It is frequently the language of international conferences, and it is the language of international athletics. Throughout the world, many professional papers are published in English. Even papers that are published in other languages often have abstracts in English.

English for Entertainment

Popular culture. Popular culture has also played an important part in the spread and popularity of English. American and British popular music are heard all over the world. American movies are seen in almost every country. Books in English are available even in countries where few people actually use English. One reason that students give for learning English is to understand songs, movies and books in English.

Travel. English is also very important for international travel. Much of the information countries disseminate about themselves outside of their borders is in English. English is spoken in large hotels and tourist attractions, at airports, and in shops that tourists frequent. There are newspapers printed in English, and TV news is available in English. Tours are almost always available in English. Even in countries where few people speak English on the street, people who work with tourists, such as hotel employees, generally speak English. In some countries, even drivers of buses or streetcars and sellers at newsstands speak English well.

Other Uses of English

In many former British colonies, English is still used in government and as a medium of communication among people who do not have another language in common. In some cases, it is a neutral language that is used to avoid giving any one indigenous language too much prestige. English is often used in India, because it is neutral. It is the language of government. People who speak English have a certain status in society. It is used for books, music and dance. In Singapore, English is a second language, but it is necessary for daily life. Many companies there use English. In addition, sixteen countries in Africa have retained English as the language of government. Now standard English is taught in schools in those countries, because it is necessary for careers.

English is also studied as a foreign language in countries where it is not generally used as a medium of communication. In China, English language lessons are popular TV programs. Two hundred fifty million Chinese—more than the population of the US—are learning English on TV. English is usually the first or most commonly taught foreign language in many countries.

The Situation in Japan

More than ten million Japanese visit foreign countries each year, and more than one third visit English-speaking countries. Many of these people go abroad as part of a tour, and they do not speak English during the visit. They just see scenery, buildings, and gardens; eat in restaurants; and stay at hotels. They have little or no contact with the people of the country. If tourists can speak some English, they can go on their own or at least have more independence when they are on a tour. They can talk with people in the countries where they visit. They can visit places on their own or take local tours. They can choose restaurants where they want to eat and shops where they want to buy things. They can get information though tourist information literature, newspapers, magazines, and TV programs.

Whenever we meet English-speaking people from various countries when we travel, they tell us that there are many Japanese tourists in their cities or countries, but that the Japanese tourists have difficulties speaking English.

Nowadays many college graduates who work for large corporations will have opportunities to visit foreign countries on business or work in foreign countries. English is likely to be essential wherever they go, even if they are working in countries where English is not the dominant language. Local workers with whom they work may speak English but not Japanese.

Japan has achieved economic power and a reputation for producing high quality manufactured goods. Many people throughout the world are interested in Japanese business, technology, and culture. However, there are not many people who understand Japanese. There are not many English books, magazines, or computer resources to convey information on Japan. Information needs to be transmitted in English so that many people in the world will know what is going on in Japan and can learn about Japanese culture. More people who can convey information about Japan to the outside world are necessary.

Most research that is published or presented at conferences is in English. Researchers from universities and companies who attend international conferences need to be able to present the results of their research in English or to publish their research results in English in international journals.

A great deal of information is available on the Internet. Most information on the Internet is in English, so if Japanese people want to take advantage of the many resources on the Internet, they need to be able to read English.

The situation in Japan makes it difficult for students of English to become proficient enough to use English for communication. Stress in junior high and high school English is on preparing for entrance exams, classes are large, and students get little individual attention. Although the Ministry of Education's Course of Study has increased its emphasis on learning English for communication, in the classroom, little has changed, and teaching still emphasizes grammar and entrance exam preparation.

Conclusion

As we have seen, English is a widespread and important language in the world today. It is used for everything from international academic conferences to news reports to popular music lyrics. It is used not only for communication between native speakers and nonnative speakers of English but between nonnative speakers. Even though it does not have the greatest number of speakers in the world, it is the most widely used and widely studied language in the world, and the number of people who speak English is likely to increase in the future.

Discussion Questions

1. Why have you studied English?

2. Can you think of any reasons to study English, other than those that have been discussed already?

Chapter 2

The History of English Teaching Methodology

Keywords
language teaching in Europe in early modern times
language teaching in the late 19th through mid-20th centuries
language teaching in the mid- and late 20th centuries

Introduction

Language teaching has been around for many centuries, and over time, it has changed. Various influences have affected language teaching. Reasons for learning language have been different in different periods. In some eras, languages were mainly taught for the purpose of reading. In others, they were taught mainly to people who needed to use them orally. These differences influenced how languages were taught in various periods. Also, theories about the nature of language and the nature of learning have changed. However, many of the current issues in language teaching have been considered off and on throughout history.

Various approaches, methods, and techniques have been developed over the centuries. Approaches may be defined as a general, overall way of thinking about language and how it should be taught. A method may be defined as a specific set of activities used to teach/learn a language. A technique may be defined as a specific activity used to teach/learn a language.

In this chapter we will discuss the history of language teaching in the West from early modern times.

Europe in Early Modern Times

In Europe before the 16th century, much of the language teaching involved teaching Latin to priests. In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, French was a lingua franca for speaking to foreigners. Members of the court spoke French, of course, but it was also a necessary language for travelers, traders, and soldiers. French was fairly widely taught during this period, and a study of the theoretical books and language textbooks from this period indicate that many of the same questions that are being considered today by language teachers were being considered then. These included questions about practice versus learning rules and formal study versus informal use.

The status of Latin changed during this time from a living language that learners needed to be able to read, write in, and speak, to a dead language which was studied as an intellectual exercise. The analysis of the grammar and rhetoric of Classical Latin became the model for language teaching between the 17th and 19th centuries, a time when thought about language teaching crystalized in Europe. Emphasis was on learning grammar rules and vocabulary by rote, translations, and practice in writing sample sentences. The sentences that were translated or written by the students were examples of grammatical points and usually had little relationship to the real world. This method came to be known as the grammar-translation method. Though some people tried to challenge this type of language education, it was difficult to overcome the attitude that Classical Latin (and to a lesser extent Greek) was the most ideal language and the way it was taught was the model for the way language should be taught. When modern languages were taught as part of the curriculum, beginning in the 18th century, they were generally taught using the same method as Latin.

The 19th and Early to Mid-20th Century

The Grammar-Translation Method

The grammar-translation method was the dominant foreign language teaching method in Europe from the 1840s to the 1940s, and a version of it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world, even today. However, even as early as the mid-19th century, theorists were beginning to question the principles behind the grammar-translation method.

Changes were beginning to take place. There was a greater demand for ability to speak foreign languages, and various reformers began reconsidering the nature of language and of learning. Among these reformers were two Frenchmen, C. Marcel and F. Gouin, and an Englishman, T. Pendergast. Through their separate observations, they concluded that the way that children learned language was relevant to how adults should learn language. Marcel emphasized the importance of understanding meaning in language learning. Pendergast proposed the first structural syllabus. He proposed arranging grammatical structures so that the easiest were taught first. Gouin believed that children learned language through using language for a sequence of related actions. He emphasized presenting each item in context and using gestures to supplement verbal meaning.

Though the ideas of these and other reformers had some influence for a time, they did not become widespread or last long. They were outside of the established educational circles, and the numerous conferences and journals which exist today did not exist then to spread their ideas.

Reforms

However, in the late 1800s and early 1900s, linguists became interested in the problem of the best way to teach languages. These reformers, who included Henry Sweet of England, Wilhelm Vietor of Germany, and Paul Passy of France, believed that language teaching should be based on scientific knowledge about language. They believed that it should begin with speaking and expand to other skills, that words and sentences should be presented in context, that grammar should be taught inductively, and that translation should, for the most part, be avoided. These ideas spread, and were consolidated in what became known as the Direct Method, the first of the "natural methods." The Direct Method became popular in language schools, but it was not very practical with larger classes or in public schools.

Behaviorism and Language Teaching

Developments in other fields have, at times, had an effect on language teaching. In the field of psychology, behaviorism has had a great effect on language teaching. Various scientists in the early to mid-1900s did experiments with animals, trying to understand how animals learned, and through animals, how humans learned.

One of the most famous of these scientists was Ivan Pavlov. His experiments showed that if he rang a bell before giving food to the dogs he was studying, when the dogs heard the bell, they would salivate, even before the food was presented to them. This is called a conditioned response. Pavlov believed that this indicated that this is how animals learned, even in the wild. Pavlov and others studying in fields of animal behavior (including John Watson and B.F. Skinner) came to believe that animal behavior was formed by a series of rewards or punishments. Skinner, in particular, promoted the idea that human behavior could be described using the same model.

In applying his principles to language, Skinner theorized that when parents or other caretakers hear a child say something that sounds like a word in their language, they reward the child with praise and attention. The child repeats words and combinations of words that are praised and thus learns language.

Behaviorism, along with applied linguistics, which developed detailed descriptions of the differences between languages, had a great influence on language teaching. Theorists believed that languages were made up of a series of habits, and that if learners could develop all these habits, they would speak the language well. Also, they believed that a contrastive analysis of languages would be invaluable in teaching languages, because points in which the languages were similar would be easy for students, but points in which they were different would be difficult for students. From these theories arose the audio-lingual method. The audio-lingual method is based on using drills for the formation of good language habits. Students are given a stimulus, which they respond to. If their response is correct, it is rewarded, so the habit will be formed; if it is incorrect, it is corrected, so that it will be suppressed.

The Mid- to Late-20th Century

In the years following World War II, great changes took place, some of which would eventually influence language teaching and learning. Language diversity greatly increased, so that there were more languages to learn. Expansion of schooling meant that language learning was no longer the prerogative of the elite but something that was available to a widening range of people. More opportunities for international travel and business and international social and cultural exchanges increased the need for language learning. As a result, renewed attempts were made in the 1950s and 1960s to 1) use new technology (e.g., tape recorders, radios, TV, and computers) effectively in language teaching, 2) explore new educational patterns (e.g., bilingual education, individualized instruction, and immersion programs), and 3) establish methodological innovations (e.g., the audio-lingual method). However, the hoped-for increase in the effectiveness of language education did not materialize, and some of the theoretical underpinnings of the developments were called into question.

Theoretical Developments

Beginning in the mid-1960s, there was a variety of theoretical challenges to the audio-lingual method. Linguist Noam Chomsky challenged the behaviorist model of language learning. He proposed a theory called Transformational Generative Grammar, according to which learners do not acquire an endless list of rules but a limited set of transformations which can be used over and over again. For example, a sentence is changed from an affirmative to a negative sentence by adding *not* and the auxiliary verb *do*. For example, "I go to New York every week" would be changed to "I do not go to New York every week." With a fairly limited number of these transformations, according to Chomsky, language users can form an unlimited number of sentences.

Other theorists have also proposed ideas that have influenced language teaching. Stephen Krashen, for example, studied the way that children learn language and applied it to adult language learning. He proposed the Input Hypothesis, which states that language is acquired by using comprehensible input (the language that one hears in the environment) which is slightly beyond the learner's present proficiency. Learners use the comprehensible input to deduce rules. Krashen's views on language teaching have given rise to a number of changes in language teaching, including a de-emphasis on the teaching of grammatical rules and a greater emphasis on trying to teach language to adults in the way that children learn language. While Krashen's theories are not universally accepted, they have had an influence.

New Developments in Methodology

Developments in various directions have taken place since the early 1970s. There have been developments such as a great emphasis on individualized instruction, more humanistic approaches to language learning, a greater focus on the learner, and greater emphasis on development of communication, as opposed to merely linguistic competence. Some "new methods," including the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, and Community Language Learning, have gained followings, and these reflect some of the above trends. In addition, there has been a disillusionment with the whole methods debate, partly due to inconclusiveness of research on methods, and calls for a deeper understanding of the process of language learning itself. Finally, there has been a greater stress on authenticity in language learning, meaning that the activities involved in language learning reflect real-world uses of the language.

The Influence of Information and Communication Technology

In the 1990s, computer technology, particularly networked computer technology (information and communication technology or ICT), has recently been introduced to English language teaching. ICT has great potential to be a tool that will have a great influence on language teaching. The Internet gives language students access to a huge library of resources, ranging from on-line dictionaries and thesauruses to ready-made lessons to help them improve their ability in the four skills. In addition, and perhaps more important, the Internet gives language students an opportunity to communicate either synchronously (in real time, that is, "chatting") or asynchronously (that is, at different times, for example, by e-mail) in the target language. This authentic communication is a new experience for a lot of students, and it has the potential to have a great effect on language teaching. However, it is still to be seen whether this potential will be fulfilled.

Conclusion

Over the centuries, many changes have taken place in language learning, and yet there is evidence that considerations related to language learning have come up again and again throughout history. No doubt the search for a greater understanding of language learning, and more effective language teaching, will continue. One of the tools which has great potential for change is information and communication technology.

Discussion Questions

What do you think have been the most important trends in language teaching? The development of the grammar-translation method? Behavioral approaches? Expansion of language learning? Technological developments? The rise of communicative approaches? Others? Why?

Chapter 3

Language Teaching Methods (1)

Keywords

The Grammar-Translation Method
The Direct Method
The Audio-Lingual Method

Introduction

Over the years, a large number of methods of language teaching have been developed. These methods each have different assumptions about language, about learning, about language learning, about the role of the teacher and of the student, and about the activities and techniques that best bring about language learning. They are based on principles, and they involve various techniques for language learning. In the chapter and the following chapter, we will discuss the principles and techniques that underlie several methods.

The Methods

Grammar-Translation Method

The method which became known as the grammar-translation method is one that has been used since the 18th century and even before. It has been called the "Classical Method," because it was originally used to teach the classical languages, Latin and ancient Greek, once considered the foundation for education. When the curriculum was expanded to include modern languages, the grammar-translation method was used to teach them. Its use is widespread, especially in countries where English is a foreign language.

In addition to preparing students to read literature in the foreign language through using the grammar-translation method, the method has two other important purposes. It is intended to help students understand the grammar of their own language better and also to help students develop intellectually. According to the grammar-translation method, learning to translate is a valuable intellectual exercise, and one that gives students insight into their own language.

The grammar-translation method is based on a detailed study of the language's grammatical rules.

Principles of the grammar-translation method. The following are among the important principles of the grammar-translation method.

1. Knowing a language consists of consciously knowing its grammatical rules. Teaching emphasizes the learning of grammatical rules, and on being able to state those rules.

2. The most important reason to learn a foreign language is to read literature in that language, and so materials used with the grammar-translation method are almost exclusively literature, and the study of the language is mainly limited to its literature and fine arts.

3. It is important for students to be able to translate from one language into another. Therefore, success in language learning consists of being able to translate well.

4. The ability to communicate orally in the foreign language is not a goal of language learning. Therefore, classes and instruction are mainly held in the native language of the students, and little or no emphasis is put on ability to speak the language or understand spoken language.

5. Emphasis is placed on getting the correct answer. There is usually only one correct answer, and the teacher has the correct answer. Thus the teacher's role is very important in the classroom, because the teacher is the authority.

6. Students can understand the meaning of a word in the target language by translating it into their native language.

7. Teaching is deductive, that is, students learn a rule first and then learn how it is applied.

8. Instruction is in the students' native language. The target language is an object of study and is not used for instruction.

Teaching techniques. Given the above principles, the following are some of the activities that are used with the grammar-translation method.

1. Translation of a literary passage. The most common activity for grammar-translation method classes is translation of a literary passage from the target language into the native language. Generally, the students translate a passage, and then the teacher explains important grammar points from the passage.

2. Memorizing vocabulary items. Students are introduced to lists of new vocabulary (with translation to the native language), which they memorize.

3. Teaching grammar rules. Students are taught grammar rules and given examples. Once they understand the rule, they are asked to apply it to different examples.

4. Antonyms/synonyms. The students are given a list of words and asked to find either their synonyms or their antonyms in the passage.

5. Reading comprehension questions. Students are asked comprehension questions about the reading passage, which they answer in either the target language or their native language.

The Direct Method

The direct method is another method that has been around for a long time. It was developed in the late 19th and early 20th centuries as a reaction to the grammar-translation method, which did not prepare students to communicate orally in the target language. It was developed based on observations of how children learn languages, so it does not depend on explanations of grammatical principles or the students' native language. Its principles have been around for many years, but with the recent interest in communicative language teaching methods, interest in it has revived.

Principles of the direct method. The following are some of the principles that underlie the direct method.

1. The main language skill is speaking. Though reading is introduced early in the direct method, it is introduced through speaking.

2. Culture is not only literature and the fine arts. Its content is based on information shared by the speakers of the target language and how they live and think.

3. Explanations are given in the target language. The native language of the students is never used in the classroom. Objects, including realia

and pictures, are used to support explanations, along with drawings on the blackboard and pantomime.

4. Vocabulary is introduced in context and through explanations in full sentences rather than in lists with translations.

5. Pronunciation is emphasized from the beginning of language learning.

6. Students are encouraged to speak from the beginning, asking and answering questions in the classroom.

7. Grammar is taught inductively, through example but not explanation.

8. Writing is taught through dictations from the beginning of language learning.

9. The syllabus is organized around topics or situations, not structures.

Teaching techniques. Some activities associated the direct method are as follows.

1. A student reads aloud from a passage, after which the teacher provides explanations and helps the students understand through gestures, pictures, and so on.

2. Students are asked questions, which they answer in full sentences in the target language.

3. The teacher asks various students questions in the target language, using a particular structure, which the students answer in the target language. Later, students ask each other such questions.

4. Dictation is sometimes used in the direct method. The teacher reads the passage at normal speed the first time, and the students just listen. Then the teacher reads it slowly two more times, and the students write down what they hear.

The Audio-Lingual Method

The audio-lingual method was another method developed in reaction to the grammar-translation method. It was developed in the 1950s, based on the Structural Approach developed by Charles Fries at the University of Michigan and on theories from behavioral psychology. While its goal, like that of the direct method, was to communicate in the target language, because of the influence of ideas from descriptive linguistics and behavioral psychology, it is based on very different principles.

Principles of the audio-lingual method. The following are some of the principles of the audio-lingual method.

1. Language should first be learned through spoken language. Written language is introduced later.

2. Only the target language is used in class, so that the students' native language will not interfere with the learning of the target language.

3. One of the teacher's primary roles is as a model of the target language. The teacher provides a native-speaker-like model for students to imitate.

4. Language learning means habit formation. Habits are formed through repetition and should be reinforced through positive feedback. The habits should be developed to the point where they are automatic. This habit formation is based on a stimulus (something that elicits a behavior, for example, the teacher asking a question), a response (behavior triggered by the stimulus, for example, the student answering the question), and reinforcement (which indicates whether the behavior is appropriate and encourages the repetition if it is appropriate or suppression if it is inappropriate, for example, praising a correct answer).

5. Accuracy is emphasized. Errors are bad and to be avoided, because they represent bad habits. If they do occur, they should be corrected immediately.

6. Parts of speech occupy slots in sentences. A good way to learn language is to substitute what is in the slots.

7. The role of the teacher is like that of an orchestra leader. The teacher guides and controls the students' behavior in the target language.

8. Some new vocabulary is introduced through dialogues, though the amount of vocabulary taught is limited. It is considered more important to develop automatic habits in grammar; vocabulary can be learned later.

9. Grammatical rules are learned inductively.

10. Contrastive analysis with the students' native language allows the teacher to know in what areas students are likely to experience problems.

11. Language courses should include information about culture, by which is meant literature, the arts and everyday life.

Teaching techniques. The following are some of the teaching techniques used in the audio-lingual method.

1. The students memorize dialogues, usually including certain structures and grammar points. In memorizing the drills, the correct pronunciation and intonation is emphasized.

2. The grammar points introduced in the dialogues are later practiced in drills. The students do drills of the following types:

a. repetition drills—repeating after the teacher's model

b. chain drills—forming a chain in which all the students in the class ask and answer questions one after the other

c. substitution drills—drills in which students substitute a specified word into a sentence, for example, "She was going to New York." "they" "They were going to New York."

d. transformation drills—drills in which students change a sentence in a specified way, for example, changing from active to passive

Conclusion

These three methods represent the progression of thinking about language teaching methodology through the 18th and early to mid-20th century. Emphasis went from reading and learning about language to speaking and learning language based on current scientific principles and/or observation of how children learn language.

Application Exercise

Choose a textbook that is based on one of the methods discussed in this chapter. How does the textbook reflect the principles of the method? How would the techniques described in this chapter be used with the textbook?

Chapter 4

Language Teaching Methods (2)

Keywords

The Silent Way
Community Language Learning/Counseling Learning
Total Physical Response
Suggestopedia

Introduction

Since the 1950s, when the audio-lingual method was developed, a number of other language teaching methods have developed. Many of these emphasize using language as communication. In this chapter, we will discuss four more methods.

The Methods

The Silent Way

The audio-lingual method was based on the principle that knowing a language means knowing a set of rules and that language learning takes place through mimicry. From the early 1960s, cognitive psychologists and transformational generative grammarians began questioning that premise. They believed that since learners can create utterances that they have never heard before, language learning is based on rule formation rather than habit formation. According to this viewpoint, learners do not just respond to stimuli. They are active participants in the learning process.

A number of methods, including the Silent Way, emerged from or are related to, these theories. The Silent Way, which was developed by Caleb Gattegno, emphasizes the active role of the student in the learning process. This method is called the Silent Way, because the teacher is supposed to be mostly silent. Though the teacher uses minimal spoken cues, the students' own speaking is stressed.

Principles of the Silent Way. The following are some of the principles that govern the Silent Way.

1. Language learners bring with them knowledge about their own language and the experience of having learned that language, and this knowledge and experience is seen as a valuable resource. The teacher's role is to help students build on that knowledge, but the teacher should not do too much for the students. The students need to learn for themselves.

2. Emphasis is on speaking. Though reading is introduced fairly early, it is taught through speaking. The four skills support each other.

3. The teacher uses silence as a tool. It encourages students to develop autonomy and initiative and to depend on one another rather than the teacher. It also allows the teacher to closely observe the students.

4. Students correct themselves rather than being corrected by the teacher.

5. Learning takes place when the students discover or create rather than memorize or repeat. Therefore, problem-solving is an important part of learning.

6. The syllabus used in the Silent Way is based on linguistic structures, but the structures are recycled, used again and again in different situations.

7. The teacher uses gestures and color charts related to the sounds of the language rather than translation. (Color charts are explained under "Teaching techniques and materials.")

8. The teacher does not praise or criticize students. The students develop their own "inner criteria" for correctness.

9. Errors are an inevitable and even necessary part of learning. They help the teacher find out what is unclear to the students.

Teaching techniques and materials. The teaching techniques and materials used in the Silent Way are complex and difficult to summarize in a few sentences. However, some of them are explained below.

1. Language-specific sound-color charts are used in the Silent Way. These charts, called Fideles, have blocks of color. Each color represents a sound in the language. The teacher points to the blocks on the chart to

teach students words in the language. For example, if the teacher wants the students to say "go," he or she points to the color for the "g" sound and then the color for the long "o" sound. Tapping hard on a particular color can be used to indicate stress on a syllable, so these can also be used to teach stress patterns. The sound-color chart can also be used to indicate to students which sound they are making, if they have difficult distinguishing between two sounds.

2. Rods are also used in the Silent Way. Rods are thin blocks of wood of various sizes and colors. They can be used most simply to teach color names and numbers. Later they can be used to teach such structures as comparatives ("The blue rod is bigger than the green rod") or prepositions ("The red rod is on the green rod"). The rods can also be used to construct clock faces to teach the telling of time; calendars to talk about days, weeks, and months; floor plans to talk about rooms in a house; and so on.

3. The teachers use a system of gestures to let students know how to correct themselves. For example, the teacher might use his/her fingers to indicate the words in a sentence and point to the finger that represents a word that is a problem.

4. The teacher, and later the students, also use charts of words represented by the same code of colors representing sounds that the students have already been introduced to. The charts for English consist of 500 words, mainly function and simple content words. The colors help students learn to pronounce the words correctly.

Community Language Learning/Counseling Learning

Community Language Learning is a method that was developed by Charles A. Curren, a psychologist interested in adult education. His observations of adult learners led him to believe that they feel threatened by new learning situations, and that if that threat could be reduced, their learning could be more effective. He used this as the basis for Community Language Learning, a method that puts emphasis on the teacher's understanding of the struggle that the student is going through in learning a language and the communication of the teacher's acceptance of the student. This understanding and acceptance is intended to help the students overcome their negative feelings and release positive energy that can be turned toward learning.

The aim of Community Language Learning is to engage the student as a whole person, including the emotions and feelings as well as the intellect. The emphasis is on language not just as a means of communication but as a social process. The emphasis is on teaching oral proficiency, though there is some use of writing.

Principles of Community Language Learning. The following are among the important principles of Community Language Learning.

1. Emphasis is placed on developing good relationships between the teacher and the students and among the students. The teacher works to create an accepting atmosphere, so that the learners feel that they can lower their defenses. Students develop a sense of community so that they can learn from each other as well as the teacher.

2. Each activity should be explained in detail in advance. When students know what to expect, they feel secure, and when they feel secure, they learn better.

3. The teacher stands behind the students, not in front of them. This reduces the perception of threat from the teacher, and focuses the interaction between the students, not between the teacher and students.

4. As part of the lesson, the students are invited to talk about how they feel. This allows them to be treated as whole persons.

5. The teacher shows that he/she is really listening to the students and making an effort to understand their feelings.

6. The students' native language is used in class, because the students feel more comfortable if they can understand everything.

7. Students have a great deal of control over what they say in a conversation, because students are more willing to learn when they are able to create the material themselves.

8. Community Language Learning is not based on a syllabus. The vocabulary and structures covered in class are those nominated in the class by the students in their dialogues.

Teaching techniques. The following are some teaching techniques used in Community Language Learning.

1. Students sit in a circle with a tape recorder, and they are asked to have a conversation about anything they want. If a student does not know how to say something in the target language, he/she can say it in the native language, and the teacher will translate it. A tape recording is made only of the conversation in the target language, which the students can listen to and understand, and which forms the basis for further activities. (This activity is generally done with 12 or fewer students. If the class is larger, the students take turns.)

2. The teacher writes down the conversation that the students had on the blackboard or a large piece of paper, with a native language translation. Students can copy the transcript or receive a copy from the teacher. The teacher may read the transcript to the students, or the teacher can play the tape for the students while they relax.

3. After or during various activities, the teacher allows the students to reflect on their experiences. The teacher gives appropriately understanding responses to the students' comments.

4. A student chooses a sentence or phrase from the transcript to practice translation. The student says the phrase and the teacher repeats it with correct pronunciation. The student keeps saying the phrase, and the teacher repeating it, until the student (not the teacher) is satisfied with his/her pronunciation.

5. Students work in small groups to do various activities, such as making new sentences with words from the transcripts. The small groups allow students to get to know each other better and to learn from each other.

Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response was developed by James Asher, a psychologist, as a method intended to make use of the natural way that children learn language. It is based on theories from developmental psychology, humanistic pedagogy, and learning theory. It puts emphasis on listening and actions at the beginning, and delays speaking until later. This is based, according to Asher, on how children learn language. Much of the early language directed at children is in the form of commands, and children's responses to the commands are in the form of actions for a time before they begin speaking.

Principles of Total Physical Response. Total Physical Response is an example of a comprehension approach, in that it is based on the belief that language learning takes place through comprehension of the language, so its activities are intended to provide comprehensible input and to reinforce memory through associating word with actions.

1. Meaning can by conveyed in the target language through accompanying actions. When the students carry out the response, or watch other students carry out the response, this reinforces the memory of the target language words.
2. Comprehension should be developed before speaking, writing or reading. Students will speak when they are ready.
3. It is important for students to feel successful, because that facilitates learning.
4. Corrections should be done unobtrusively, usually by repeating the command and demonstrating the action.
5. Language learning should be fun.
6. The teacher should recombine words and structures that the students have learned, so that they can learn to deal with sentences they have not heard before and because novelty makes the classes more entertaining.
7. Errors are tolerated. The teacher deals with minor errors when students have become somewhat proficient.

Activities for Total Physical Response. The main activity used to teach Total Physical Response is the giving and following of commands. First, the teacher gives a command and performs the action, so that the students can understand the meaning of the words. (It is important for the teacher to plan the commands in advance, since thinking up commands on the spot can slow down the lesson.) Then individual students, groups of students or the class as a whole perform the actions in response to the commands. The sequences of the commands should be varied, so that students need to understand the language, not just follow a memorized routine. Also, new commands should be introduced just a few at a time (three is recommended), so that students can learn them easily. After students get used to this, the teacher can start using a sequence of related commands, called an action sequence. As the students become more proficient, the action sequences can be longer. Everyday activities can be broken down into individual actions and used as an action sequence. A simple one would be telling a student to walk to the door, open it, and go through it.

Though Total Physical Response is based on using imperatives, according to Asher, all grammatical structures can be taught through Total Physical Response. For example, the conditional can by taught this way:

Teacher: Jane, stand up. (Jane stands up.)
Teacher: Class, if Jane stood up, raise your right hand. (The class does this.)

After 10-20 hours of instruction, according to Asher, students will begin wanting to speak. Then they can take over giving commands, and part of the class can consist of students giving commands to other students.

The Communicative Approach

The Communicative Approach is based on the idea that learning a language is not just a matter of learning vocabulary and structures; it also involves knowing how to use language appropriately, carrying out language in a social context. Using language involves negotiating meaning, which is carried out not only based on the intent of the speaker but is modified based on who the speaker is, what the relationship is between the hearer and speaker, etc.

Principles of the Communicative Approach. The following are some of the principles on which the Communicative Approach is based.

1. In the Communicative Approach, the teacher's major responsibility is to establish situations in which students have a chance to communicate. This is done through such activities as games, tasks, role plays.

2. The social context in which language is used has an influence on the language and should be part of the class.

3. Communicating involves not only what is said but how it is said. Therefore, it is important to learn not only the forms of a language but

how to use them appropriately. Appropriacy is influenced by social context.

4. The learning of grammar and vocabulary follows from the function, the situational context, and the relationships between the interlocutors and the roles of the interlocutors.

5. Language should be presented at a level above the sentence level, since it is important to learn about cohesion and coherence.

6. Games are useful in language teaching, because they have characteristics in common with real communication and because they take the students concentration away from the language and put it on the message and also give the students natural feedback about whether their communication is successful.

7. Small group work is useful, because it allows each student more opportunity to communicate.

8. Errors are part of the natural progress of learning a language. They are ignored, as long as the meaning is clear.

9. Students should be given a chance to express their opinions.

Activities and materials for the Communicative Approach. Given that the emphasis of the Communicative Approach is to put the students in situations where they have a chance to use the language for communication, almost any activity that would accomplish that is useful. The following are some examples of common activities used with the Communicative Approach.

1. The Communicative Approach often makes use of authentic materials appropriate to the students' level of proficiency. This can include a wide range of materials, such as newspaper articles, advertisements, menus, timetables, and so on.

2. Scrambled sentences, paragraphs, or dialogues can be used to make students aware of cohesion, coherence, and how sentences are bound together.

3. Strip stories can be used in various ways. For example, students can be given the first picture and make predictions about what will come in the next one.

4. Games are also useful in the Communicative Approach. They should

have three characteristics—1) an information gap, 2) choice, and 3) feedback.

5. Role plays fit with the Communicative Approach particularly well. They provide a context and information about relationships among the speakers which are important to learning about appropriate usage. Role plays can be either highly structured, as when the teacher assigns roles and situations and tells the students what they are expected to do, or fairly unstructured.

Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia is an extremely complex method that requires training to use. While we will not discuss it in the depth we have discussed other methods, we will introduce it briefly.

Suggestopedia was developed by Goergi Lazanov, a Bulgarian psychiatrist and educator. It is based on "suggestology," a study of non-rational, unconscious influences on human learning. The purpose of Suggestopedic activities is to harness these influences. While many theorists and researcher have questioned Lazanov's claims and there is little controlled research to support them, it has gained some prominence.

Suggestopedia makes use of music and musical rhythms. Music has the function of relaxing students and is also used to structure, pace, and punctuate the linguistic material that is presented. Lazanov believed certain types of music created a direct path to the brain, a path which can be used to carry words as well as music. When students listen to readings in Suggestopedia, the teacher uses certain intonation patterns which also make use of these pathways.

The relationship of the teacher and students in Suggestopedia is that of parent and children. Learners use role playing, songs, games, and exercises to regain the spontaneity, confidence, and receptiveness of childhood.

Conclusion

New language teaching methodologies put emphasis on communication and on learning language in communicative and natural ways. While no method is a complete answer to the problem of language learning, something can be learned from all of them.

Application Exercise

Choose a textbook that is based on one of the methods discussed in this chapter. How does the textbook reflect the principles of the method? How would the techniques described in this chapter be used with the textbook?

Chapter 5

Language Learning and Acquisition

Keywords

domain-specific skill
language acquisition device
second language acquisition
contrastive analysis
error analysis
interlanguage

Introduction

In order to teach language, it is useful to have some understanding of theories about how language is learned or acquired. In this chapter, we will discuss issues related to first and second language learning/acquisition and the influence of the first language on second language acquisition.

First Language Acquisition

There are two opposing assumptions related to the acquisition of a first language, and these assumptions lead to different conclusions about the process of first language acquisition. One is that learning language is a skill, much like any other skill. Language is learned just as playing chess or playing the piano is learned. The opposing assumption is that language is a specific skill, unrelated to other skills, and that it is therefore the process of learning a language is different from that of learning any other skill. According to this assumption, language is a domain-specific skill. This means that the process of learning language is a very specialized one, not related to intelligence or to other types of learning.

Noam Chomsky, a linguist specializing in child language acquisition, has theorized about the existence of a language acquisition device (LAD) that allows children from a young age to make sense of the language sounds that they hear and acquire a knowledge of vocabulary, semantics, and syntax, based on what they hear. In other words, humans are genetically predisposed to learn language, just as they are genetically pre-disposed to have arms rather than wings.

At this point, the balance of the evidence seems to lean toward the latter position, though the argument is not entirely settled. One important type of evidence related to the specificity of language learning as a skill is related to the tie between language acquisition and cognition, that is, thinking skills. Various studies have been done on the relationship between language and cognition. One way of studying this issue is to look at language in animals. While animals seem to have language-like skills, and there are some animals such as apes that are relatively intelligent and able to learn language-like skills, there are no animals that are able to use the type of formal syntax that is a feature of human languages.

One reason that it is believed that there is a domain-specific language acquisition device is that language is such a complex skill, but children learn their native language relatively quickly and at a young age. A child starts using individual words as "sentences" (for example, "Hungry" to ask for something to eat) around one year old, and two-word "sentences" between 18 months and two years of age. By the age of three and a half, much of the child's knowledge of grammar is in place. By that age, a child can apply formal grammatical rules as complex as any linguist can describe. By the age of six, children speak fluently. In addition, children control complex rules involving politeness and appropriacy of utterances. Studies with children as young as four years old show that they are aware of differences between requests directed from a higher status person to a lower status person and visa versa. At the same time, the child is acquiring vocabulary at an amazing rate. According to one estimate, children acquire an average of almost thirty words a day. It is difficult to imagine any comparable complex skill that a child acquires so quickly or at such a young age.

Chomsky's "language acquisition device"—a part of the brain that specializes in making sense of the language sounds in the environment and allows children to acquire the lexicon, formal syntax, and so on—is believed to make this rapid rate of learning possible. This process begins at a very early age, long before the child actually begins producing words. An "attention bias" has been suggested. This means that a part of an infant's brain is predisposed, almost from birth, to separate language sounds from other types of sounds and to pay particular attention to language sounds. The language acquisition device also lets the child know that it is important to pay attention to such characteristics as word order and inflection.

The ability to learn a language is something that every normal child has. In other words, any child placed in an environment where there is a sufficient amount of language input will learn that language. This ability is not at all language-specific. That is, any child is born with the ability to learn any language. What language they learn depends entirely on which language they hear in their environment.

Correction of errors seems to play at most a very minor part in child language learning. Studies of interaction between children and their caretakers indicate that the adults rarely if ever correct the child's grammatical errors. Any correction is usually directed at the content of the child's utterance. That is, if the child makes a grammatical error, the adult very rarely corrects it. However, if the child makes an error in meaning, the adult will correct it.

First language acquisition appears to occur in stages. In the first stage, children learn expressions as routines. These routines might be compared to piano pieces that a person has learned to play from beginning to end but cannot play starting in the middle or play variations of. Gradually, children learn to recombine the routines and vary them. That way, they eventually learn to speak, write or understand words that they have never heard before by applying the knowledge of grammar that they have acquired.

Second Language vs. First Language

One of the major issues related to second language learning is whether it is possible to acquire a second language as an adult in the same way that one acquires a first language as a child, that is, merely by being exposed to comprehensible language. For many years, there have been arguments on both sides. Some researchers argue that second language learners can acquire a language in exactly the same way that they acquired their first language. This means that a second language can and should be taught by exposing learners to comprehensible language, rather than by formally teaching them grammar and vocabulary. Other researchers argue that there are qualitative differences between child and adult language learning, and that these differences make it impossible for adults to learn language the same way children do. Therefore, adults must be taught a language through the formal teaching of grammatical structures and vocabulary.

Stephen Krashen is one of the most influential proponents of the point of view that first and second languages are acquired in exactly the same way. According to Krashen's theories, adults can acquire a second language in the same way in which they acquired their first. If they get sufficient comprehensible input (written or spoken language that they understand), they will acquire the language. Methods of language teaching based on this viewpoint should include activities in which students hear a lot of the target language. Direct teaching of vocabulary or grammar is avoided. According to Krashen's theories, direct teaching of grammar and vocabulary rules is not an effective way to teach a language.

If adults learn language though comprehensible input, the characteristics of the input become an issue. Teachers and others who speak to non-native speakers of the language often modify their language to suit the perceived level of proficiency of the non-native speaker by using simpler vocabulary and grammatical structures. This simplification is known as "teacher talk" or "foreigner talk." While this makes the language more comprehensible for less proficient speakers, it may prevent more proficient speakers from being exposed to more advanced vocabulary and grammatical structures. In some cases, this also results in ungrammatical structures or inaccurate uses of vocabulary, which they also may acquire.

In contrast to Krashen's view, other theorists argue that there are differences between child and adult language learning. One of the arguments for this viewpoint is that no normal child, placed in a language environment, fails to acquire that language. In contrast, it is relatively rare for an adult to attain a native-like proficiency in a second language. The resulting inference is that child and adult language learning involve different processes. In the most extreme cases, the methods based on this viewpoint emphasize only formal teaching of grammar and vocabulary, with little opportunity for students to actually use the language. Teachers who take a more moderate view combine varying amounts of formal teaching of grammar and vocabulary with opportunities for students to use the language in meaningful ways through communicative activities.

The Use of Contrastive Analysis and Error Analysis

One way that researchers have looked at the second language learning/acquisition process is to look at the errors that learners make in the target language and compare them to the characteristics of the target language. The assumption that this type of research is based on is that there is transfer between the first and second language, that is, that the characteristics of the first language will be reflected in the learners' use of the target language. In some grammatical points, the first language and the target language will be similar. In those cases, according to this theory, learners are unlikely to make errors, and these grammatical points will be easy to learn. If, in contrast, a grammatical point is different in the first language from what it is in the target language, it is likely to be difficult for learners, and learners are likely to make mistakes in the target language.

The basis for such assumptions is a behaviorist view of language learning, that is that learning is habit formation. In the study of the transfer of learning as habit formation, transfer is divided into three types—positive transfer (a habit that helps the learner learn a second habit); neutral transfer (no effect on new habit); and negative transfer or interference (the first habit will make it more difficult to form the second habit and therefore more likely that the learner will make a mistake).

In the 1950s and 1960s, applied linguists began doing studies comparing mother tongue and target language to find out how they are different, and by end of 1960s there was a large body of literature on differences between languages. This work was based on the assumption that errors could be predicted, based on differences between the first and target language. This is called the "strong contrastive analysis position." It was a powerful idea, because it suggested that language-teaching techniques with a scientific basis could be developed, emphasizing the structures that students were most likely to have difficulties with. However, research did not support the theory that features of the first language could be used to predict errors in the target language.

This failure lead to the "weak contrastive analysis position." The weak position was that while information from contrastive analysis studies could not be used to make predictions, it could be used to explain, in retrospect, errors that students made. That is, examples of what appeared to be negative transfer could often be found in the language of learners, but it was difficult to predict in advance what those errors were likely to be.

Interlanguage

Interlanguage is an intermediate form of language, used before the speaker had fully acquired the second language. As time passes, the interlanguage of a particular learner theoretically contains fewer and fewer errors and resembles more and more closely the language of native speakers. In practice, of course, many learners never achieve the ability to speak the language like a native speaker and so always speak a form of interlanguage.

The assumption of some language teaching methods, such as the audio-lingual method, is that errors are bad and that they should be avoided. More recent theories of language teaching emphasize that making errors is a natural part of learning. Studying the errors that learners in interlanguage make can help us understand the process of acquisition.

For example, a student might say, "I comed yesterday." In that case, we can see that the student has overgeneralized the regular past tense verb ending to a verb that has a verb with an irregular past tense form. Errors like this indicate that a learner learns a rule and applies it very widely at first. Gradually, the learner gets a better idea of when the rule applies and when it does not.

Conclusion

Many questions remain about the process of language learning, both for first and second language learners. However, it is generally believed that language learning is a domain-specific skill. There is still some question about the relationship between first and second language, and the answer to this question will influence the methods a teacher chooses to teach.

Interlanguage is the term used for the intermediate form of the language used before the learner acquires a native-like version. Most learners never do acquire a native-like version, but the study of their interlanguage is useful for seeing patterns of language acquisition.

Discussion Questions

Look at the seven methods discussed in the previous chapters. What assumptions do the methods make about the relationships between first and second language learning? That is, which try to use techniques that are similar to first language learning, and which use techniques unlike first language learning?

Chapter 6

Teaching Plans

Keywords

usefulness of teaching plans
content of teaching plans
finding teaching plans
writing teaching plans

Introduction

When we do something, we usually make plans. For example, when we drive somewhere, we check the route on the map, estimate how long it takes to get there, where to stop for lunch, etc. Of course it is possible to do this without making plans, but if we make plans, we can use time, energy, and money most efficiently. We sometimes just enjoy driving without any destination, but of course we will not reach any specifically predetermined destination.

No one teaches a class or lesson without any idea about what to teach and how to teach it. Teachers must have some idea of what they are going to do and how they are going to do it in class. If these ideas about what one will do in a lesson are formalized, they are called teaching plans. In this chapter, we will discuss the advantages of teaching plans and what they should include.

The Usefulness of Teaching Plans

Teaching plans help teachers to cover all the points that they intend to cover without wasting time. They also help the teachers consider the relationship between the activities done in class, their goals for an individual class, and their goals for the course as a whole.

Teachers need to keep many things in mind as they teach. It is not easy to remember everything. They may forget something they had intended to cover in class. They may digress and waste time. They may think that they will be able to teach more than they can handle in one class. Teachers also need to think carefully about the goal for the class and the activities and exercises that may help reach the goal. Teaching plans help them do this. What is the goal for the course as a whole? What is the goal for the class? What activities can best help reach those goals? Can the chosen activities be modified in some way to better suit the goals?

What Is a Teaching Plan?

When we talk about teaching plans, we are usually referring to a concrete written plan. There are mainly two types of teaching plans. One type is the plan for one class. The other type is a plan for teaching a particular item, such as present progressive form or for doing one activity, such as playing a game. In Japan, the former is emphasized in teaching methodology and teaching practice courses in universities. All students are required to write teaching plans as practice teachers. TEFL/TESL teachers in the United States and the United Kingdom often use the latter. In either case, the teaching plan should include goal or purpose of instruction, the procedure of instruction, the materials required, important points for teachers or for students (what teachers need to explain), examples, exercises, explanations of how to do exercises, plans for reviews, information about what to write on the blackboard or OHP, and the approximate time required.

Teaching plans can show many aspects of the instruction—not only the content but also the procedure and organization of the instruction. Thus, if someone looks at a teaching plan, he/she can understand something about what the instruction is like, what its strong points and problems are, and so on.

Making a Teaching Plan

Experienced teachers generally have a teaching plan to use during class, even if they do not write it down. However, they may not be able to remember everything that they had planned, so they may have such problems as skipping something important or taking time to come up with examples. Instruction can be disorganized as a result, so it can be useful even for experienced teachers to write down a teaching plan.

Another advantage of a concrete teaching plan is that it allows teachers to look back and see what they have done. This plan will be the basis of a record of what has been covered in class, and will make it easier to make achievement or progress tests later.

Teachers can also use teaching plans to evaluate their own instruction after the class. They can put notes about, for example, which activities worked well and which explanations need to be improved. In this way, teachers can improve their instruction, and they can use the revised teaching plan in the future. Since a teaching plan can be written with a word processor, it is much easier to revise it than to write an original one.

Teachers can exchange teaching plans with colleagues. This is very useful if they are using the same materials or teaching the same course or courses with similar goals. They can exchange ideas and help each other.

What Does a Teaching Plan Include?

The teaching plan may include, as appropriate:

1) the goal or purpose of instruction,
2) the materials to be used, (if a textbook is being used, page numbers should be specified)
3) the amount of time to be spent on each part of the instruction
4) important points to be explained in class
5) examples for each important point
6) things to be written on the blackboard or OHP
7) exercises
8) the summary or review
9) the homework assignment

1) The teaching plan should begin with the goal of the instruction. It is a good idea to think about both the overall goal of the course and how the goal of the individual class fits in. All explanations and exercises should be directed toward achieving this goal.

2) The materials to be used in the class should also be described. The

materials can be part of a textbook, handouts, OHP transparencies, etc. The teacher should consider how the materials are related to the goal of the class and how the materials might be adapted to better meet the goal. This list can be used to remind teachers what to take to the class.

3) The teacher needs to consider how much time should be spent on each section of the plan. Teachers make such decisions based on various factors, including their students' ability, the difficulty and complexity of the activity or explanation, and so on. (The time actually spent should, of course, be flexible. If an activity that turns out to be more useful and interesting than expected, for example, the teacher may want to spend more time than originally allotted. The teacher should, of course, be aware that taking more time for one activity will necessitate cutting the time devoted to another activity.)
4) The teaching plan should stress important points that need to be particularly emphasized.
5) It is important to think in advance about the examples used with the explanations. Good examples are essential to making complex points understandable. Because it may be difficult to come up with appropriate examples, thinking about them in advance, rather than waiting until giving the explanation, is necessary.
6) The teaching plan should show what has to be presented on the blackboard or OHP.
7) The teaching plan should specify what exercises should be used. Teachers need to prepare more exercises than necessary. In some cases, students go through the exercises more quickly than expected, and extra activities are required.
8) The class should end with a review or summary, and this is specified in the teaching plan. It is always important to sum up the class and if possible to review important points in that class, so that students will leave the class with the important points fresh in their minds.
9) If you are assigning homework, this should be specified in the teaching plan. The homework should also be directed toward the goal of the class.

The procedure for a lesson plan is based on the instructional philosophy, approaches and methods of the teachers. However, in general, it has an opening, review of the previous class, the introduction of new items, explanations of new items, exercises using those items, and summary and review.

The opening is very brief and attracts the students' attention or motivates them. The review of the previous class should not be long, unless that is very important for the current day's lesson. The introduction should be brief, but good examples should be provided. It is important to check whether students understand important points before beginning the exercises. It is a good idea to ask questions rather than just explaining. If students know it, it is not necessary to explain it. Also, questions give students opportunities to think and recall what they have learned or what they already know. Explanations are easy for teachers, but can be boring for students, and in many cases, they do not remember what they have heard. Doing exercises without understanding is meaningless. It is a good idea to spend as much time as possible for exercises and activities. Exercises and activities are main components of learning. Students should learn through doing rather than just hearing. It is important to review important points or sum them up at the end of the class. This gives reinforcement, and students will remember them for a longer time.

How to Get Teaching Plans and How to Write Them

There are some books which compile teaching plans, such as TESOL's "New Ways" series, which includes *New Ways in Teaching Reading, New Ways in Teaching Vocabulary, New Ways in Teaching Writing*, and *New Ways in Teaching Grammar*. There are some teaching plans available on the Internet. *The Internet TESL Journal* (http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/links/TESL/Lessons/) has links to many teaching plans. Some teacher training books in Japan might have some examples. However, the best one is the one you write.

When you are writing your teaching plan, you need to think about the answers to various questions. Among those questions are the following: What is the goal of the course?

What is the goal of this class?
What was covered in the last class?
What is the new topic?
What are the new grammatical points, vocabulary, cultural information, etc.?
How can you best explain them?
What questions are you going to ask?
What kinds of questions do you think the students will ask?
What kinds of activities or exercises are you going to do?
How should they be modified to suit your goals? How will you review or summarize?
What assignment are you going to give?
What materials are you going to cover or use?
Do you use any equipment such as slides, computers, pictures, maps, or OHP transparencies? If you do, what are you going to use and when are you going to use it?

Putting your thoughts on paper can help you clarify them, organize them better, decide what is and is not necessary for your teaching goals.

After the class, you need to evaluate your teaching plan as well as your teaching. Then you can revise your teaching plan for future use. With this procedure, you can make more realistic and practical teaching plans for classes. As you repeat this procedure, you will develop your own teaching style and teaching plans.

Make time to discuss your teaching plans with your friends or colleagues. They will give you useful advice on how to improve your plans. Improving your teaching plans is improving your teaching.

Having said all this, when it comes to actually teaching, you should beware of following your teaching plan too slavishly. Your students' questions or their responses to exercises may indicate to you that they don't understand your explanation, and you may find that you need to spend more time explaining or give more examples or other activities. The questions may also indicate a direction of student interest that might be useful to follow up. This new direction may, for example, fit the overall goal of the course, even if it does not fit the goal of the class you are currently teaching. Be open to these teaching/learning opportunities, even if they do not fit exactly into your teaching plan.

Conclusion

Teaching plans are a valuable part of a teacher's preparation. They help a teacher think about how the activities in a particular class fit in with the overall goals of that class and the course of a whole. They help the teacher think ahead about how to make the teaching points clear. However, teachers should be flexible with their teaching plans to make use of any learning opportunities that may come up unexpectedly.

Application Exercise

Choose one lesson from a textbook, and write up your teaching plan.

Chapter 7

Teaching Skills—Listening

Keywords

- receptive
- productive
- oral
- graphological
- exposure listening
- task listening
- listening leading to other activities
- interactive activities

Introduction

The skills involved in language have traditionally been divided into four areas. These are speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Among these four skills, speaking and writing are productive skills, and reading and listening are receptive skills. Speaking and listening are oral skills, and reading and writing are graphological skills. This relationship is demonstrated in the chart below.

	Oral	Graphological
Receptive	listening	reading
Productive	speaking	writing

In this chapter, we will look at ways of teaching and evaluating listening. In the following chapters, we will look at speaking, reading, and writing. It is obviously impossible to cover these subjects thoroughly in just a few chapters (entire books have been written about the teaching of each skill), but this will at least give you an overview of the issues and possibilities involved.

Listening

Listening is a receptive skill but not a passive one. Listeners play an active role in the listening process. Listeners use information about the situation and the other participants in the conversation to help them make inferences from what they hear. They also anticipate what is likely to be coming and use that information to make comprehension easier.

Unfortunately, a lot of listening material does not lend itself well to teaching students to anticipate what will be coming. Often, not enough information is given about the participants (age, sex, relationship, status), the setting (where and under what circumstances the language is being used), or the purpose (what the intentions of the participants are). Often listening practice in classrooms is done with audio tapes, which gives little of the information we normally have in real-life listening.

Goals and Types of Activities

Goals of a listening program should include:

1) exposing students to a variety of listening material, including formal and informal materials, conversational, narrative, and informative materials, etc.
2) training students to use different listening strategies, for example, anticipating what they will hear by listening for specific information, for the overall idea, or in order to follow instructions
3) to provide a stimulus for other activities, such as discussion or writing

Various approaches can be taken to developing listening comprehension skills. These can be categorised as 1) exposure listening, 2) task listening, 3) listening leading to other activities, and 4) interactive listening.

1) Exposure listening. Exposure listening refers to material where students mainly listen rather than respond (though they may do exercises as they listen). Materials for exposure listening can include monologues (one person telling a story or a joke or giving a talk), dialogues

(two or more people in conversation), and songs. These can be presented on audio tape or a video tape, or, in the case of monologues, the teacher can do the monologue live. During or after listening, students can do various types of exercises, such as filling in the blanks in a script, outline, or summary of what they hear, filling in charts, etc. However, the main focus should be on the listening itself, rather than on doing activities.

2) Task listening. Task listening involves having students do a task in response to what they listen to. Often the task involves another skill, such as speaking or writing. One of the most basic tasks is to teach discrimination of pronunciation, stress patterns, and so on. Game-like activities and puzzles can also be used to teach listening. For example, one student can be given half of the information necessary to solve a puzzle, and the other student can be given other half. They are not allowed to show each other the written information, so they must listen to what the other person says in order to solve the puzzle. Giving instructions is another task that can be used to give students practice in listening. The teacher can describe a picture for the students to draw, a route for them to follow on a map, or the arrangements of some objects. Such activities provide a very concrete way to see whether students understand what they are hearing. Error-correction exercises are exercises in which students listen to a monologue or dialogue. They compare the information that they get from the listening passage with other information that they have. The other information can be in such forms as pictures, a summary of the listening passage, or a script. Students find the differences between the version that they listen to and the picture, script, or summary. Finally, students can fill in blanks in a chart, based on the information that they hear.

3) Listening leading to other activities. In real life, listening often leads to the use of other skills. Some skills can be used as a stimulus for other activities. For example, a listening passage can be used to prepare students for a reading on a similar subject. Students can listen to a passage and write their reaction to it. Students can listen to a passage (for example, describing a problem) and use it as the basis for a dis-

cussion (discussing solutions for that problem.)

4) Interactive activities. Interactive activities are ones that involve both talking and listening on the part of all participants. The most obvious interactive activity is a discussion. Discussions generally work best when students are given a specific task. They can, for example, plan an ideal city or decide how to solve a problem that they are given. There are many books that have suggestions for such discussion tasks.

Another interactive activity is predictive listening. Predictive listening is an activity where students listen to a dialogue or a passage to a particular point and then discuss what they think will come next. It is not necessarily important that they "guess right" but rather that they practice making predictions as they listen and think about what kind of textual and non-textual information they can base their predictions on.

Testing Listening

The following are a few of the activities that can be used to test listening.

Interpreting Sentences and Dialogues

A teacher can test the students' understanding of individual sentences and dialogues. In the simplest form, this type of item consists of a single sentence which testees listen to and four written statements from which they choose the one closest in meaning to the original spoken sentence.

Another type of item is one in which the testees listen to an utterance and choose from among four responses the most appropriate response. In that case, the testees are not being asked directly what the meaning of the utterance is. Rather they are being asked to show that they know what it means by showing that they recognize an appropriate response. This tests both the testees' listening ability and their knowledge of appropriate second pair parts of adjacency pairs. At a slightly higher level, both the first statement and the responses can be spoken, but in that case, it might be better to have only three responses, since it would be difficult to keep all four responses in mind.

Tasks Using Visual Materials

Matching and true/false tasks. Some types of tasks make use of visual materials along with the spoken material to test listening. One form of this task is to present testees with a picture or other visual (for example, a chart or a graph) along with spoken true/false statements. Testees look at the visual and decide if the statements are true or false. An alternative is to present testees with a series of similar pictures and to have them match the pictures with spoken sentences describing them. Similarly, the testees can listen to a short dialogue, rather than just a statement, and decide which of the pictures matches the dialogue.

The advantage of using visual materials in this way is that they can be used to test listening alone without involving other skills very much (if the tester considers that an advantage)—though it is impossible to entirely eliminate the use of other skills. However, they do not reflect the sorts of listening done in the real world.

Map tasks. Another way to use visual materials in testing listening is to use maps. One activity involves having testees listen to directions for how to get somewhere and follow along on the map. They respond by drawing their route or indicating where they would be at the end of the directions. Another possibility is to have testees listen to a conversation referring to various locations on the map and having the testees identify the locations.

Drawing tasks. Testees can also do drawing tasks according to instructions. For example, they can be given a simple line drawing and be asked to complete it according to certain instructions. The testees can be presented with a diagram of a room with the bed represented by a rectangle and be asked to add a table, a bookcase, a door, etc., at certain locations in the room. Alternatively, they can be instructed to draw certain geometrical forms. It is important to keep such activities simple so that the drawing task itself does not demand too much of testees. The activity is more interesting if it can be done as part of a simple story rather than as a list of statements, though this may depend on the level of the testees. In addition, the students should have a chance to try out this type of activity before having to do it as part of a test.

Tasks involving talks and lectures. One way of using talks in listening tests is to have the testees listen to the talk and then fill in the blanks in a written summary of the talk. The words chosen for blanks should be ones that the testees cannot figure out from the context of the summary, without listening to the talk, but they should also be ones that are related to the main idea of the talk, so that filling in the blanks does not require remembering small details of the talk.

Another way doing this involves giving testees questions to answer as they listen to the talk. These questions can be short answer/completion, multiple choice, or true/false. The difficulty with using short answer or completion questions is that they require the testees to both read and write while they are listening, something that can be difficult even for native speakers. Multiple choice questions may require a lot of reading, something that may also be a problem. True/false questions may be the best type for this type of task, since they require relatively little reading compared to multiple choice questions and relatively little writing compared to short answer/completion questions.

Another type of task that can be used is a chart that the testees fill in while listening to the talk. Answers in some of the blanks in the chart may be filled in for the testees. Testees should be given the chart in advance of hearing the talk, and be given time to familiarize themselves with it and make sure they understand what is expected of them.

Finally, testees can be allowed to take notes while listening to the talk, and then use the notes to answer questions after the talk is over. Depending on the length and complexity of the talk, testees might be given a list of the major topics included in the talk in order to help them in taking notes.

Conclusion

The goals of listening activities include exposing students to a variety of materials, training students to use different listening strategies, and providing a stimulus for other activities. Teachers should consider these goals in choosing their activities. These goals lead to different types of listening, including exposure listening, task listening, activities that can stimulate other activities, and interactive activities. There are also various activities that can be used to evaluate students' progress in listening.

Discussion Questions

1. Which of these activities have you used yourself to learn English? Which did you feel were helpful?

2. Choose one of the activities described here, and demonstrate it.

Chapter 8

Teaching Skills—Speaking

Keywords

- speaking activities
- time pressure
- drills
- functions
- role plays
- pair work
- evaluation

Introduction

Speaking is a productive skill. The main goal in teaching speaking is to develop oral fluency, that is, the ability to express oneself understandably and without too much hesitation. In this chapter, we will discuss various speaking activities and ways of evaluating speaking.

Speaking Activities

The teaching of speaking is almost always combined with some form of listening. It is virtually impossible to deal with speaking without, in some way, involving listening comprehension, because except for public speaking situations, speaking is rarely done apart from listening. While it is nearly impossible to avoid some involvement with listening, the teacher should be careful to make the stimulus well within the students' listening ability. If students have to concentrate on just understanding what has been said, it makes it difficult for them to give enough concentration on the goal, which is developing their speaking ability.

At least part of the time, speaking should be done under some time pressure, that is, the student should have to respond to the stimulus within a short time, without an unnecessarily long hesitation. Avoiding too many long hesitations is an important point. If there are too many long hesitations, the listener may become bored or lose the thread of what the speaker is saying. If hesitation is unavoidable, students should learn hesitation devices such as "Ummm...," and "Let's see", which indicate that they have heard the statement or question and are preparing to respond.

Drills

The teaching of speaking may begin with drills. Drills are often criticized as being meaningless and mechanical, but there are ways to make them more meaningful and less mechanical, if not entirely authentic. For example, students can be instructed to think of something, such as their favorite color, what they would like to be when they grow up, or a country that they would like to visit, and other students can ask them yes/no questions to find out what they are thinking of. They can be instructed to use different forms to ask the questions, depending on what form the teacher wants to emphasize. "Are you thinking of Brazil?" "Do you want to go to Brazil?" "Would you like to go to Brazil?" "Perhaps you want to go to Brazil" and so on are among the expressions that can be used to find out what country another student would like to visit. Two students can also talk about a third student, in order to use third person.

A well-known variation of this type of activity is the game "Search for Someone Who..." In this activity, the teacher prepares a handout in advance, with a list of characteristics, hobbies, etc., with blanks for students' names. For example, the list can include such items as, "__________ can play the piano," "__________ has been to California," and "__________ likes to read science fiction." Students use the list to ask each other questions in order to find out who in the class can play the piano, has been to California, and so on.

Another way to make drills meaningful is to give students a situation and have them ask questions about it. For example, the teacher could say, "I'm going on vacation in Alaska, and I am packing for my trip. What do you think I'm going to take?" Students can ask, "Are you going to take a coat?" "Will you take an alarm clock?" "You're going to take a scarf, aren't you?" etc., depending on the structure they are practicing. A variation on this is to have the teacher or one student look at a picture, while other students ask questions about it. For example, the person holding the picture can say, "I'm looking at a picture of a park." The students can ask, "Are there trees?" "Is there a swing set?" and so on.

Students can also practice speaking using open-ended responses. They can be given a stem which they can complete in any logical way that they choose. For example, they can be given the stimulus sentence, "Diana had some free time, so she went to a movie." Students can complete the sentence with such phrases as "...so she went for a walk" or "so she stopped by and visited a friend."

Learning Functions

In addition to learning to use various grammatical forms, students need to learn to perform functions such as requesting, apologizing, and greeting appropriately. Using these functions is a matter not just of learning grammatical expressions and vocabulary words but learning how the expressions that they have learned are applied in different situations. It is best to teach about functions in context, so one way to teach about functions is to present students with a dialogue in which a non-native speaker makes a mistake using the function (e.g., not being polite enough in making a request). Students can read the dialogue and decide what the problem is. They can then either read a dialogue with the function(s) carried out more appropriately and discuss the differences, or they can be assigned to write such a dialogue themselves. They might then be taught more expressions to carry out the function in different situations, and then practice them. They can also be given different situations to do role plays.

Role Plays

Role plays can range from structured to free. On one hand, students can be told specifically which functions they should use, though not the exact words.

Student A	Student B
Ask Student B to help you with your homework. Suggest a time.	
	Turn down Student A's request for help, because you have other plans.
Suggest another time.	
	Agree to Student A's request.

In contrast, students can be given a general situation and say what they want. For example:

Student A: You are going to have a party on Saturday evening. Invite Student B.

Student B: Listen to what Student A says and respond. Use your actual schedule in your response.

You can also use various types of realia for role plays. For example, if you are having the students do a role play of a visit to a restaurant, using menus, or you can have students discuss what they will watch on TV in the evening while they look at a TV schedule.

Using Texts

Texts can also be used as the basis for oral practice. After students read a text, the teacher can ask them questions orally about the content of the text. The forms of the questions can be varied (yes/no questions, or/choice questions, wh- questions, tag questions), so that the students are required to respond in different ways. In addition to questions, the stimulus can take other forms, including true/false questions, or false statements which require a correction. In using oral practice this way, the teacher should be careful not to ask questions or require responses that are beyond the students' capability to deal with, either because of difficulty in listening comprehension or speaking ability.

Pair Work

Many of the activities discussed in this chapter can be done either with the teacher and the whole class or with students in pairs or small groups. The following is some advice for doing pair/group work:

1) You should make certain that the students understand the instructions. You should explain the activity and/or demonstrate it with a student or have a pair of students demonstrate it. As the students start doing the activity, you should go around to different pairs and observe them to make sure that they are doing the activity properly.

2) Pay attention to the amount of time you are giving students to do the activity. Give students enough time to get a reasonable amount of practice but not so long that they overdo it. This is difficult to gauge, since some students will work more quickly than others. One possibility is do give a few extra exercises to students who finish early, or to have the members of the pair switch roles or do some other variation on the activity.

3) Follow up the activity. As you go around and listen to students do their pairwork, note any problems that you hear. If you find problems that seem to be general, you can go over them with the entire class. (If the mistakes are serious enough, it might be necessary to interrupt the activity.)

Testing Speaking

The activities described in this section are often used to test speaking. Some of them can also be used as classroom activities to practice speaking.

Types of Speaking Tests

Reading aloud. One way that reading is tested is by having the testees read aloud. This is not generally a good way to test reading. Its backwash effect (that is, the effect of a test on teaching in the classroom) is likely to be harmful, and it is not a skill that is used much outside of the classroom. However, it is a way to test pronunciation separately from the content of speech. If it is necessary to use this method of testing, the test should at least make use of a situation where the student might actually be reading aloud, such as reading instructions or parts of a letter to another person.

Conversational exchanges. Another simple type of test is a test in which students are given a particular situation and instructed to respond in a certain way. These tests are usually highly structured and require only a limited response, not connected discourse.

Type 1. Students are asked to construct a sentence following a certain pattern using the information that they are given. They are usually given two or three examples first. For example:

Jane has been working at the same job for ten years. She is tired of her job and would like to do something more interesting. (*She wishes she could find a more interesting job.*)

Elizabeth always takes her vacation in the mountains, because that is where her family likes to go. She would rather take her vacation at the beach. (*She wishes she could take her vacation at the beach.*)

Type 2. In another type of conversational exchange test, a situation is given but no guidance is given as to how to respond, and the student can respond freely. For example:

A friend of yours has been tired a lot recently. What do you say to her? (*Maybe you should be getting more rest.*, etc.)

Type 3. In another type of text, the student is given a stimulus sentence and can respond in any appropriate way. This type of test usually depends on conventional responses, such as responses to requests or invitations.

Could I borrow your dictionary?
(*Sure, go ahead.*, *Sorry, I'm using it.* etc.)

This may also be done as part of a longer dialogue, where there are pauses for the testee's responses to questions on a tape. The problem with this sort of test is that the dialogue on the tape keeps going along, no matter what the testee says, whether the next line on the tape is appropriate or not. In addition, it is testing listening at least as much as it is testing speaking. However, this type of test does make it possible to test large numbers of people at the same time in a way that is at least somewhat communicative.

Testing speaking using visual material. Pictures, maps, diagrams, and other types of visual material can be used to test speaking without requiring the testee to comprehend written or spoken material. Through careful selection of the material, the tester can control the vocabulary and, to some extent, the grammatical structures required.

Various types of material are appropriate for this type of test, depending on the language that the tester wants to elicit. One common type of stimulus material is a series of pictures which tell a story, often with a few sentences of introduction to get the testee started. This requires the testee to put together a coherent narrative. A variation on this is to give the pictures in random order of the narrative to a group of testees. The students describe their pictures and decide on their sequence without showing them to each other, and then put them down in the order that they have decided on. They then have an opportunity to reorder the pictures if they feel it is necessary.

Another type of test using a visual stimulus is one in which two testees are given pictures that are similar but have several differences. Without seeing each other's pictures, they describe their own pictures and find the differences.

In addition to using pictures, it is possible to use charts, graphs, or other ways of visually organizing information, and the testee has to describe them. One possible problem with this type of visual stimuli is that the material has to be something that all the testees can interpret equally well, since if a testee has difficulty understanding the visual information, that will influence the way he/she is evaluated.

Oral interviews. Oral interviews are testing situations in which the tester and the testee carry on a conversation. The tester generally has a list of questions to ask the testee, and someone—either the interviewer or another person but preferably another person—assesses the language proficiency of the testee. The advantage of an interview is that it attempts to approximate a conversation situation, but the knowledge that it is a test and the constraints of the roles in the interview make it difficult to have a real, natural conversation.

The interview protocol needs to be carefully considered. It might be best to start with yes/no questions or factual questions that are easily answered to put the interviewee at ease, but these can be inhibiting, so this stage should not last too long. The open-ended questions should be interesting, easy to respond to, and give the testee some range in answering.

When doing an interview test, it is very important that the interviewer be well trained in order to avoid problems and so that the interviewer is consistent from one interview to another to help make the evaluation of the testee more reliable. The interviewer, for example, should avoid talking too much (though giving some personal information may help break the ice and put the testee at ease), should speak clearly, should not interrupt the interviewee to give answers, should maintain eye contact with the interviewee, and should not correct the interviewee during the interview.

Role play test. Another type of test is a role play. In a role play the testee and a confederate (a person who is helping the tester) are given information on which to base a role play, and the testees are evaluated on their ability to carry out the task in the role play. For example, the role play might be getting information about course requirements. Role plays require the testee to use various functions that he/she might need in real communication.

Group or pair activities. To avoid the types of problems associated with oral interviews, sometimes students are put together in pairs or groups that are given some task, such as the ones mentioned above in the section on using visual materials. They might also be given a quiz to work on together, a puzzle to work out, or a task. The point of these is not to find the "right" answer but to stimulate speech for the tester to evaluate. This is intended to be a less inhibiting situation than an interview test, but it also has the problem of lack of control. How the activity goes depends to a great extent on the mix of testees that are put together. If their level of English proficiency is widely different, or if one testee is particularly dominant, this will influence the interaction. A well-trained interviewer can provide similar environments from one interview to another, but this is not possible in testing a number of testees in a group activity. In addition, successful group discussions depend on factors other than speaking, including active listening and eliciting the opinions of all of the group members.

Assessment

One of the great difficulties in testing speaking is of course the assessment. It is necessary to develop a system of assessment that can be applied as objectively as possible, though it is probably never possible to avoid some subjectivity in assessment. The scale can be one general scale for overall speaking ability, or it can be divided between several aspects of the skill of speaking, such as pronunciation, grammar, and organization. The scale also depends on the speaking task that is used for the test. A test that uses public speaking as the task would be different from one that uses a group discussion.

If possible, the speaking task should be recorded and the scoring done from the tape. In addition, the marking should be done by more than one person, and the results should be checked to make sure they are consistant. If the task is an interviewer, the interviewer should not be required to score the test at the same time as conducting the interview, if this is avoidable.

Among the aspects of speaking that might be considered in the assessment scale are grammar, pronunciation, fluency, content, organization, content and vocabulary.

Conclusion

Speaking activities are often combined with other skills. Although drills are often criticized as being mechanical, there are ways to make them more communicative. Role plays, texts, and pair activities are activities which allow students to use speaking, to varying degrees, in communicative ways.

Discussion Questions

1. Which of these activities have you used yourself to learn English? Which did you feel were helpful?

2. Choose one of the activities described here, and demonstrate it.

Chapter 9

Teaching Skills—Reading

Keywords

choosing reading materials
reading strategies
extensive reading
intensive reading
testing reading

Introduction

The traditional way of teaching reading often involved looking at individual words and translating them into the native language. It also involved the intensive study of grammatical points. However, over the past two to three decades, research on the process of reading has indicated that reading comprehension goes far beyond the understanding of individual words and points of grammar. It is possible to understand all the words in a sentence and not understand the sentence as a whole, or to understand all of the sentences in a paragraph and not understand the paragraph as a whole. Readers need to be able to understand the relationships between the ideas in a paragraph or the relationships among paragraphs in a longer piece of writing. In this chapter, we will discuss some of the ways that students can be helped to read in this way.

The Choice of Reading Materials

Choosing reading materials is among your first tasks. There are several factors you need to consider in choosing materials.

1) The students' interests. Students have a wide range of interests, and it is probably impossible to find material that every student will be interested in. However, you should make an effort to choose material that is of interest to the majority of students. You can talk with students

about what they are interested in, or find out what they read in their native language. English-speaking cultures are often something students are interested in.

2) The difficulty of the reading material. Reading material is generally best when it is just slightly difficult for students. (The exception is materials for extensive reading, discussed below.) It is sometimes difficult to determine the difficulty of reading material. Using a cloze test is one possible way. To use a cloze test as a guide to readability, you choose 100-200 words from the text that are typical of the text as a whole. You delete every 7th word after the first sentence and have students try to fill in the blanks. If students are able to fill in more than 50% of the blanks correctly (using the exact word method, meaning that the word is only counted as being correct if the student provides the exact word that was in the text), the reading is probably not too difficult for them.

3) Content of the materials. The content of the materials should include some information that is new to students. Though learning new information is not the main focus of the reading class, it motivates students, because it gives them a reason to read beyond the concentration on grammatical points and new vocabulary.

4) Length of reading passages. As a general rule, reading passages should not be so long that they cannot be covered in one class period. In fact, much shorter passages are often useful. A paragraph, with its introduction, discussion, and conclusion, can form a microcosm of longer passages, and they are easier to deal with and see the characteristics of than longer passages, so paragraphs are useful for many purposes.

Teaching Reading Strategies

Because reading is a process that requires the active involvement of the reader, it seems to be useful to teach students to use reading strategies. Among the strategies that might be useful are pre-reading activities, skimming and scanning, finding the main idea, finding supporting ideas and determining their relationships to each other and to the main idea, looking at the organization of paragraphs or longer pieces of writing (e.g., introduction, discussion, and conclusion), identifying types of organization (cause-and-effect, generalization and illustration, comparison and contrast, etc.), outlining, looking for transitions, and making predictions while reading.

Pre-Reading

Reading is more efficient if the reader spends some time preparing for reading before beginning. There are various ways to do this. First, students should always look over the reading passage. They should look at the title, any illustrations, the first sentence of each paragraph, headings, words in bold type, and so on. They should think about what the article is likely to be about and what they already know about that subject. They can be instructed to do this and then their predictions about the reading passage discussed. They can also be asked questions about the topic that they are likely to be able to answer.

Skimming

Skimming means looking over a piece of writing quickly to get an overall idea of what it is and what it is about. Students can practice this by quickly identifying different types of readings (diary, memo, letter, short story, etc.). They can also practice by matching a list of titles with the paragraphs they go with.

Scanning

Scanning means looking for a specific piece of information quickly. Students can practice this by answering questions about specific pieces of information as quickly as possible. The answers to the questions should come directly from the text, and the wording should be similar to what is in the text. At first, it would be easiest if the questions involve figures, because the students can just look for figures in the text.

Finding the Main Idea

One of the most important parts of the reading process is finding the main idea—if a reader cannot find the main idea, it is difficult to say that he/she understands the reading passage. The problem that many Japanese students have when reading English is that they treat each sentence, each piece of information as if it were equally important. They need to understand that the reading passage has one or more main ideas, and those ideas are the most important. Various activities can help students learn to find the main idea. After reading a passage, they can choose which of three sentences expresses the main idea. Later, they can find a sentence or sentences in the paragraph or passage that states the main idea. They can also be asked to state the main idea in their own words.

Finding Supporting Ideas

Students also need to learn about supporting ideas—the relationship between the main idea and the supporting ideas, the relationships among supporting ideas, the type of information that supporting ideas give. Students can be made aware of the different functions of supporting ideas (examples, statistics, further explanation of the main point, definitions), and they can identify these functions in a reading passage.

Outlining

Outlining is a way of showing these relationships. Outlining shows graphically the relative importance of pieces of information. If the reading passage is well organized, students can be shown an outline of it, and they can match the information in the reading with the information in the outline to see the relationship among ideas. Later, they can be given outlines with some lines blank, and they can fill in those blanks, and finally, they can learn to write their own outlines.

Organization of Paragraphs and Reading Passages

In general, paragraphs and longer reading passages have an introduction, a discussion, and a conclusion. The introduction tells what the paragraph/passage will be about, the discussion gives more information about that topic, and the conclusion summarizes the information or draws a conclusion. It is easiest to see these parts in paragraphs, so students can look at paragraphs and identify the introduction, discussion, and conclusion. Later, they can look at longer passages.

Types of paragraphs and reading passages. Paragraphs and reading passages are organized in different ways. There are, for example, illustration and generalization (a general statement and example[s] of it), cause and effect (an effect and its cause[s] or a cause and its effect[s]), comparison and contrast (similarities and differences between people, things, places, etc.), and opinion (the writer's opinion and reasons for it). Students can read examples of these and then later they can identify which type of organization is being used.

Transitions. Knowing about transitions is also useful in reading efficiently. Transitions (also sometimes called logical connectors) are words that indicate the relationship among pieces of information or the type of information that will follow. Transitions introduce additional information (e.g., also, in addition), expected information (of course), intensified information (in fact), restatements (in short, that is), examples (for example, including), consequences (so, therefore), causes (because, due to), contrasting information (but, although), order (first, then), and conclusion (in conclusion, to summarize). Students can first be asked to identify transitions in a reading passage and later can fill in blanks in the text with appropriate transitions. It is also useful to give students texts with a blank after the transition and ask them what kind of information they think would follow the transition.

Making Predictions While Reading

An efficient reader looks ahead and predicts what might be coming next. Students can be taught to do this by being given a sentence or a few sentences and being asked what they think will follow. (If students have learned transitions, they can predict what will come after a transition.) When reading a paragraph or reading passage, students can be stopped periodically and be asked to make a prediction.

Extensive vs. Intensive Reading

There are various ways to teach reading, but most of them fall into one of two categories—extensive reading and intensive reading. Intensive reading involves reading a relatively short passage carefully. It involves looking at the passage from various points of view, including the grammatical points, the new vocabulary and old vocabulary used in ways, and the meaning of each individual sentence, or at least each paragraph. The activities for teaching reading above mostly involve intensive reading. Extensive reading, in contrast, involves reading relatively large amounts of material. Instead of emphasizing the understanding of details, extensive reading emphasizes understanding the overall meaning of the passage. Students read at their own pace instead of reading according to the schedule of the class.

Extensive reading generally involves self-selected reading, which means that the reader decides what he or she wants to read. This is intended, in part, to motivate students—if students are reading material that they themselves choose, they are more likely to actually carry through with reading it. One way that students can choose reading material is to think about what they read in their native language. A student who likes to read mysteries in Japanese, for example, may like to try reading mysteries in English. Students sometimes have a tendency to choose books that are too difficult for them when doing extensive reading. It should be emphasized to students that they should choose readings that are comfortable for them. They should not have to struggle in order to do extensive reading. The point is to read a large amount of material.

Extensive reading and intensive reading can be combined in a reading program. For example, students can do extensive reading outside of class and intensive reading for at least part of the time they are in class. For each book that they read extensively, students can fill out a questionnaire or book report.

Testing Reading

Reading is probably the most common of the four skills to be tested, and it may seem to be the easiest of the skills to test. However, testing reading does have difficulties, and there are issues that anyone testing reading should be aware of.

The text that is used to test reading can have an impact on the results. Some of the factors you need to consider are the type of text (the type of text chosen should reflect the goals of the language teaching situation and the purpose for which students are studying English), background knowledge required (if some students know more about the topic of the text than others, they are likely to do better on the test), and difficulty (if it is too difficult, few testees will do well; if it is too easy, too many will do well).

Tasks to Test Reading

There are a wide variety of tasks that can be used to test reading ability. Since there are many more possible tasks than we can deal with, we will present some of the more common and useful ones.

Multiple choice questions. Multiple choice tasks, like true/false questions, are easy to mark. They have the advantage over true false questions that there are more than two (or three) alternatives. One type of multiple choice item has a sentence or a few sentences, and testees choose from three or four words the one that fits in the context. For example:

> We are moving to a city that has good schools, some nice parks, and safe streets. It is a good (environment, background, medium) to raise children.

This type of question can be used with testees of various levels. If testing vocabulary is the goal, then the context sentences should be easy, and the level of difficulty of the alternative words should be varied, depending on the presumed level of proficiency of the testees.

Ordering tasks. Testees may read a text and be given a series of statements covering the information in the text to put in order. This is particularly useful for tests with a built-in sequencing, such as instructions or a narrative (especially if the story is not in chronological order), but it can also be used to emphasize the development of ideas in the text. An additional feature might be to include some statements with information which is not in the text and instruct testees to indicate any such statements.

Chart tasks. Testees can read a text and fill in information in a chart, based on what they have read. Sometimes some of the information is filled in for the students.

Conclusion

While the traditional way of teaching reading emphasizes grammar and individual words, teaching students how to use reading strategies emphasizes such skills as finding main ideas, understanding the relationships among details, and finding transitions. Students can apply what they learn through extensive reading.

Discussion Questions

1. Which of these activities have you used yourself to better understand a reading in English? Which did you feel were helpful?

2. Choose one of the activities described here, and demonstrate it.

Chapter 10

Teaching Skills—Writing

Keywords
organizing
outlining
pre-writing steps
dealing with errors
extensive writing
evaluating writing

Introduction

Writing and reading are closely related. In one sense, what students need to know to be efficient readers are also the things they need to know to write well. Also, people who read a lot tend to write well. Reading helps a writer develop vocabulary and an understanding of what words go together and also to develop a sense of the language and of how reading passages tend to be organized.

Some of the techniques used to teach reading are also useful for the teaching of writing. The emphasis, though, is put on production rather than reception. In this chapter, we will discuss some techniques for teaching writing and some evaluation techniques.

Teaching Techniques

Organization

It is useful for students doing writing to know the parts of a paragraph or reading passage (introduction, discussion, conclusion), the types of paragraphs and reading passages, and transitions. In a writing class, these can first be introduced using the techniques described in the chapter on reading. The next step in a writing course would be to have students apply what they have learned in doing their own writing. They can be assigned to write paragraphs and later longer passages using the organization that they have learned.

Outlining

Doing an outline is also helpful for writers as well as readers. Doing an outline before they write can help students organize their ideas and to see what the relationships among their ideas is.

Pre-Writing Steps

Teaching students to do pre-writing steps is sometimes useful. Rather than just sitting down and writing, students can learn to plan what they are going to write. Before writing, it is necessary to come up with the general topic and then narrow it down to the aspect of that general topic that they will write about. For example, if the student is going to write about music, it is too broad a topic. A writer can compare two types of music, or explain why he/she likes one type of music, or explain the development of a type of music.

Another pre-writing step is generating ideas. The student can think about the topic and make a list of ideas related to that topic. The list should include as many ideas as possible. After finishing the list, the student can go back and consider each idea, eliminating the ones that are not good.

Other Issues

Dealing with Errors

The traditional way to deal with students' errors is for the teacher to correct all of them. Research has indicated that this time-consuming procedure does not help students very much. It may be more helpful to indicate to the student that there is an error and what type of error there is, and let students rewrite their compositions, correcting the errors. Also, it may be more useful to concentrate on particular types of errors. When teaching about paragraph organization, it may be preferable to concentrate on making suggestions for improved paragraph organization rather than grammatical errors.

"Extensive" Writing

Students should also be encouraged to do writing on their own outside of class. This can take various forms. For example, students might be encouraged or required to keep a journal. Dialogue journals are another form of extensive writing. In the traditional dialogue journal, the teacher writes responses to what students have written. A variation on this is to assign students to partners, with whom they exchange journals. In these types of assignments, the point is for students to write as much possible in order to develop fluency, to become comfortable with writing, and to use writing to develop his/her own thoughts. The teacher should not correct students' writing in these sorts of assignments.

Testing Writing

Issues Related to Testing Writing

Instructions. The instructions should use as few words as possible, consistent with making the writing task and situation clear, so that the testee does not spend too much time on the instructions. Definitions should be provided in the instructions, if any are necessary.

Time and length. The instructions should also indicate the time allowed for the task and any instructions related to length in number of words. It may be useful to give the students a range of the number of words, so they have an idea of what is expected, though they should be encouraged not to spend too much time counting words.

Establishing a context and communicative purpose. As much as possible, the test should establish a clear purpose of communicating, especially by indicating the intended reader and giving a realistic context for the reader. In making the context realistic, the teacher should keep in mind, for example, that the testee would probably not use English in writing to someone who shares his/her native language, so instructions to write a letter to a family member would not be an appropriate use of context. Establishing the context should be done in as few words as possible, while still making the situation clear.

Choice of topic(s). Choosing the topic is a very important part of the writing task. If the testees find that the topic is something that they cannot respond to, they will not be able to demonstrate their writing ability. There are various approaches to choosing a topic and various issues to consider. There are not always clear answers about what type of topic is best, but the teacher should be aware of the issues involved.

Doability. The topic should be one that the testees are able to respond to. To determine this, it is necessary to pre-test the topic. A topic that sounds very reasonable in theory may not work well in reality.

Knowledge. The tester must consider the background knowledge that the students have about the topic. The topic should be one that the students have an approximately equal familiarity with. If students have different levels of knowledge about a topic, the ones with greater knowledge about it will have a clear advantage in writing about the topic.

Connected discourse. The task should require testees to write a piece of connected discourse. While there may be valid arguments for testing the writing of beginning students by having them just fill in blanks, once students are beyond the beginning stage, their writing proficiency should not be tested by having them translate from their native language or fill in blanks.

Level of difficulty. The teacher should carefully consider the difficulty of the test. Like any other test, if a writing test presents a task that is too easy or too difficult, if the instructions are difficult to understand, etc., the responses that testees give will not reflect their true ability, either because the task is not challenging enough for their ability or because it is so difficult that they do not know how to respond. Pretesting with a similar group is useful in determining the right level of difficulty.

Time allowed. The teacher should carefully consider the time allowed for the test. If insufficient time is allowed, the students do not have a chance to show what they can do, particularly in the case of assessing the organization of a piece of writing. However, there may be cases, such as writing an essay for an examination, where the task that the student needs to be able to do in the real world will have restrictions on time, so in some cases, it is appropriate to limit time.

Types of Tasks

The following tasks can be applied to either teaching or evaluating writing.

Gap filling. One of the most controlled way of testing writing is gap filling. Testees are presented with a passage with blanks, and they fill in the blanks. This is a mixture of both reading and writing skills, which is sometimes a problem, because it makes it difficult to decide what the scores really mean. However, with lower level students, it might be the only reasonable test of productive ability.

Form completion. Another controlled way of testing writing is to have the testees fill out a form, for example, an application. The advantage of such a task is that it is at least somewhat communicative, but the disadvantage is that it does not require any connected discourse or any use of language greater than lexical knowledge and a small amount of grammar.

Making corrections. In some situations, testees are presented with a short piece of writing which has deliberate grammar, punctuation and spelling errors, and they are asked to correct the errors. While this task does relate to one thing that people do when they write—editing—and it is objectively corrected, it does not represent the writing task as a whole.

Letter writing. Letter writing is a common task for writing tests. The stimulus for the letter may be a situation that is explained in the instructions, a letter to which the testees are instructed to respond, information given in chart or graph form that is to be summarized in the testees' letter, pictures or drawings that give information about a situation the testees are expected to write a letter about, and so on. In all of these possibilities, the tester must keep in mind that the situation must be as clear as possible for the testee, unless there is an intention to test reading and writing together. If the testee does not understand, for example, a letter that he/she is expected to respond to, it will be impossible to get a sample of writing to evaluate.

Essay writing. Essay writing is probably one of the more common writing tasks, but it should be used carefully. If the future situation of the students will not include writing essays, the tester should carefully consider whether it is the best test of the students' writing ability.

Marking Tests of Writing

The marking of writing tests will always be at least somewhat subjective, but the use of descriptors for each level of the marking scheme can at least help make the marking consistent. One possibility is to make a marking scheme for the overall quality of the writing, but the problem is that, for example, the grammar can be good but the organization poor. It is perhaps more useful to have different sets of descriptors for each aspect of writing that you want to consider. You might want to have descriptors for grammatical correctness, use of vocabulary, content, organization, and mechanics. These categories might be weighted differently, depending on what you want to emphasize.

Conclusion

Reading and writing are related, and some of the same information that is useful for readers is useful for writers as well. In addition, it is useful for writers to do such things as outline, generate ideas before writing, and do extensive writing. Activities such as letter writing, form completion, and essay writing can be used either to evaluate writing or for practice. When evaluating writing, such issues as clarity of the instructions, doability, and choice of topics must be considered.

Discussion Questions

1. Which of these activities have you used yourself to learn to write in English? Which did you feel were helpful?

2. Choose one of the activities described here, and demonstrate it.

Chapter 11

Teaching Vocabulary

Keywords

views of vocabulary learning
aspects of vocabulary knowledge
semantic mapping
semantic arrays
testing vocabulary

Introduction

Vocabulary is an important but often underrated part of language learning and teaching. In this chapter, we will discuss why vocabulary is so important and discuss the nature of vocabulary knowledge and how to help students develop it.

Vocabulary and English Language Teaching

Traditional Views

The learning of vocabulary has often been neglected in language teaching. Linguists and language teachers often considered grammar a much more difficult and important part of learning a language, while vocabulary was something relatively easy and not too important. Many linguistics and language teachers advocated teaching just a limited list of vocabulary words, assuming that vocabulary learning would take care of itself if the student could learn grammatical forms. Others took the attitude that learning vocabulary is such a large task that it was not a good use of class time, since it is impossible to teach enough vocabulary to make a great difference. When vocabulary words were taught, they were often taught as a list of words with translations into the student's native language or definitions in the target language.

More Recent Views

Since the late 1970s and early 1980s, though, there has come to be a greater appreciation for not only the size of the vocabulary of an English speaker but also the complexity of vocabulary knowledge and the complexity of the interrelationships among words. Knowing a word is considerable more complicated than knowing a definition or translation of it. Knowing a word involves knowing its connotations, its relationships with other words, and the ideas that they represent.

Aspects of word knowledge. Knowledge of words has several important aspects, in addition to what the word actually means. These include 1) knowledge of how the word is used appropriately (when you produce it) and knowing the implications of a word (when you see or hear it); 2) knowing the different meanings of the word and being able to determine which one is intended in a particular context; 3) knowing the connotations of the word; and 4) knowing the ideas associated with that word. Knowing a word also involves knowing the words it collocates with, that is, the words it is often found with. For example, the word "garden" might be expected to appear with words such as "vegetable" or "flower." Learning collocations is an important part of learning new words.

Whole webs of meaning are included in word meaning, beyond the actual definition of the word. For example, the word "buy" means "to obtain by paying a price," but there is more knowledge involved in knowing and using the word "buy." You know that there is both a buyer and a seller, something that is purchased, and a cost. All of these are involved, even if not all of them are mentioned specifically. Related verbs, such as "sell" and "cost," focus on other of the factors, and users of the language have to understand these relationships and the different implications of different emphases. Knowledge of a word also involves knowledge of its common figurative uses, or ability to look for figurative uses, as in to "buy (someone's) loyalty." All of this information is involved in the knowledge of the meaning of the word and the ability to comprehend it and use it appropriately.

A distinction is sometimes made between productive and receptive vocabulary knowledge. Receptive vocabulary includes the words that are recognized but that the person is not able to use; productive vocabulary includes words that the person is able to use. This relationship might be more usefully thought of as a continuum. All words initially enter a person's vocabulary as receptive vocabulary. Gradually, the word becomes more familiar, and some words eventually move into the productive vocabulary.

From another point of view, vocabulary learning has been broken down into five stages. The first stage is encountering an unknown word. The second stage is encountering the word again and recognizing it but still not clearly knowing its meaning. In the third stage, the word is recognized and a concept of its meaning is beginning to be formed. In the fourth stage, the meaning of the word is clarified. Finally, in the fifth stage, distinctions are made between the word and other, similar words and relationships are learned with other concepts. This system probably cannot be applied neatly in real life—some stages are skipped, and knowledge of many words probably never goes beyond the third stage. Also, the knowledge characteristic of the fifth stage probably begins much earlier. How quickly a word moves through the stages probably depends on how frequently a word is encountered, and on how clear the contexts are in which it is encountered. Though these stages are not easily distinguished, this system does seem to reflect vocabulary learning as a process, rather than an all-or-nothing event.

Teaching Vocabulary

The depth of meaning involved in word knowledge must be taken into account in teaching vocabulary. Extensive reading is considered by many the best way to develop a good vocabulary, and nothing can really replace it. Students should be strongly encouraged to read as much as possible in English in order to develop a good vocabulary. Extensive reading seems to work best if students are allowed to choose their own reading and do it at their own pace. They should also be discouraged from reading material that is too difficult for them. For this purpose, it seems to be most useful for students to read material that they can read comfortably.

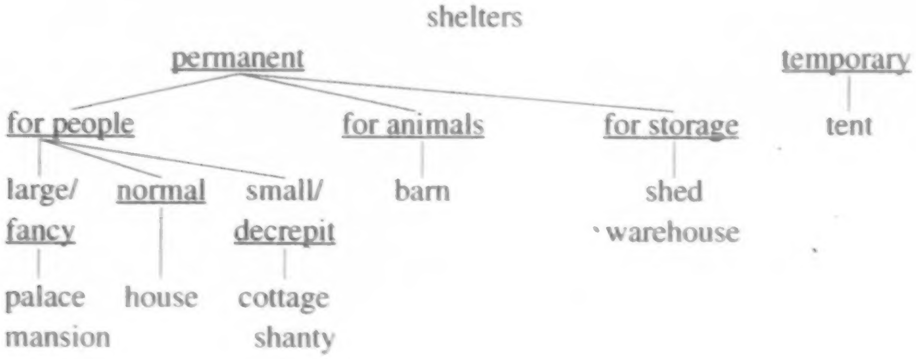
It is not practical to teach all of the words students need to know individually in class—there are just too many of them. Nevertheless, there are some activities that can help students develop a depth and breadth of understanding of vocabulary words and the connections between them. The most effective ways of teaching vocabulary seem to be ones that make use of students' knowledge of the world, particularly their knowledge of the associations among the concepts that the words represent. These techniques also have the advantage that they help make it clear that learning words does not just involve learning a list of words and definitions or translations.

Some Techniques

Semantic mapping. One way of teaching vocabulary that make use of the students' knowledge of associations among ideas is called, among other things, semantic mapping. When teaching vocabulary for a particular reading text using semantic mapping, you write a word representing a central concept from the reading on the blackboard. You ask students to generate words related to that basic theme. The teacher and the students together find categories for the words that are generated and draw lines or circles connecting words in the same category and the category to the main idea and to other related categories. The teacher can introduce new words that are necessary for the reading passage and tell the students what they mean and show where they go on the semantic map. This gives students an idea of where the new words that they are learning fit in with words and ideas that they already know.

Semantic arrays. Another way of making use of teaching vocabulary is making a semantic array of words and their semantic meanings. This involves using a grid with semantically-related vocabulary across the top and related characteristics down the side. For example, if the topic is shelters, the list of shelters might include "house," "barn," "mansion," "shed," "shack" and so on. The characteristics might be "for people," "for animals," "large," "small," and so on. Pluses and minuses can be used to indicate which of the characteristics a particular shelter has, and zeros can be used to indicate that the meaning does not either include or exclude that characteristic.

Hierarchical and linear arrays. Hierarchical and linear arrays can also be used. Hierarchical arrays put words into categories and subcategories according to their characteristics, in a similar way to matrices. For example:



Words which fall along a continuum can be diagrammed on linear arrays. For example,

irritated —> annoyed —> angry —> enraged —> furious

Testing Vocabulary

Sources of Words to Test

If all of the students are using the same book or syllabus, the vocabulary words from those are the most logical choices. If not, it is probably most appropriate to draw on the vocabulary of the task for which the testees are being tested. For example, if the test is being used to choose students to go to an English-medium university, then the items for the test can be chosen from academic vocabulary.

In any case, when testing vocabulary, the grammatical structures used should be easy to understand. If the grammatical structures are difficult to understand, the test is testing both the ability to understand the grammatical structure and knowledge of vocabulary.

Tasks

Multiple choice. Multiple choice tasks are often used for vocabulary tests. The best distracters (incorrect alternatives) for vocabulary items are either 1) words that have a similar meaning to the correct word but which are inappropriate in context, or 2) words that are contextually related but which do not fit in the context. (See a more extensive discussion of multiple choice questions in the chapter on evaluation.)

Synonym/definition items. The simplest multiple choice item has a single word in the stem, with four or five alternatives. Testees choose from among the alternatives the word or the definition that is the closest in meaning to the word in the stem. Alternatively, the definition might be the stem, and the testees choose from four or five words the one that fits the definition. Obviously the definition needs to be simply and clearly written.

Picture items. The stem in the previous type of item can be replaced with a picture. The testees choose which of the four or five alternatives matches the picture. Obviously it should be clear what is being depicted in the picture, so that the test is of the meaning of the word, not the testee's ability to interpret the picture. This type of test is appropriate for elementary students.

Sentence items. Another option is to test the vocabulary item by putting it in a sentence and having the testees choose the alternative that has the same meaning as a word in the sentence that is specified. This is a preferred type of multiple choice vocabulary item, since the problem item appears in context and the context helps give the vocabulary word a specific meaning. However, in this case, the testee should not be able to surmise the meaning of the word from the context, unless the intention of the item is to test that skill.

Context items. Another type of multiple choice item is one that has a sentence with a blank in it, and the testees choose which of the alternatives fit in the sentence. These items are difficult to write, because it is difficult to provide the right amount of context. If not enough context is provided, the question becomes difficult to answer; if too much context is provided, too much information, grammatical and semantic, is provided.

Matching items. Another type of item is one in which the testee is presented with a short passage or several unconnected sentences with blanks. The testee chooses from among a list of words that are given (usually more words than blanks) the word which fits in each blank. In these items, it is preferable to have all the words in a set the same part of speech, the same tense in the case of verbs, etc., so that students need to choose what fits in the blank based on meaning, not grammar. The purpose of having extra words is so that the testees cannot answer the last item by having eliminated all other possibilities. On the other hand, the more items there are, the more likelihood that two items could conceivably fit in the same blank.

A variation of this type of items is one in which the testee is given a reading passage and a list of words and is instructed to find synonyms in the passage for each word in the list.

Completion items. Completion items are similar to those described above, except that testees are not given words from which to choose. They must supply the words for the blanks. The problem with this type of item is that it is very difficult to write items for which there is one and only one answer.

Guessing meaning from context. Another vocabulary-related skill to test is the ability to guess the meaning of an unknown item from context. In testing this skill, students are usually presented with a word that they would be unlikely to know and are asked to figure out what it means. Testing this skill can be done using multiple choice items or by requiring the testees to supply a definition. The problem with the latter type of item is that it is very difficult to evaluate the answers, because some are likely to be almost correct but not exactly. It is necessary that the meaning of the target word be very clear from the context, and for this type of item, pretesting is particularly important for that reason.

Conclusion

Teaching all the vocabulary that students need in class is impossible. However, it is useful to try to teach some vocabulary, especially if it is taught in ways that help students understand the relationships among words and the depth of meaning included in words. This both introduces them to new words in meaningful ways and helps them understand the complexity of word meaning and knowledge about words.

Discussion Questions

1. Which of these activities have you used yourself to learn English vocabulary? Which did you feel were helpful?
2. Choose one of the activities described here, and demonstrate it.

Chapter 12

Teaching about English-Speaking Cultures

Keywords

content courses
teaching culture in content courses
topics
dialogues
materials and activities

Introduction

In recent years, there has been an interest in content teaching as part of English language teaching. The interest in content teaching comes from two major sources. One is an effort to make English language teaching materials more interesting to students. The other is related to a belief that language learning is most effective when the learner is concentrating on meaning, not on form. In this chapter, we will discuss content teaching in general and teaching culture in particular. We will discuss some aspects of culture that can be taught and how to teach it.

Two Types of Content Courses

One way to distinguish among types of content teaching is according to the goal of the teaching. For some programs, the goal of the teaching is to teach the English language, and the content is the vehicle for the teaching of English. Though the content is important, many of the exercises focus on linguistic features of the text, including grammatical points, lexical items, or referents. This focus is necessary both because of the students' need for help to understand the text and because a major part of the purpose is to help the students gain linguistic knowledge.

The second type of content teaching puts the greatest focus on the content itself. Generally it is assumed that the students will understand the content relatively readily, and there are no exercises dealing with the language of the passage. There may be some questions about the content itself, but the emphasis is on questions about the students' opinions of the content, questions relating their knowledge of the content with their previous knowledge and experience, and so on.

Reasons for Teaching about Culture in Content Courses

A wide variety of topics can be used as content for English language courses, or as English-medium content courses. One possibility is teaching content courses about English-speaking cultures. There are several advantages to teaching about English-speaking cultures.

First, students tend to be interested in English-speaking cultures. The fact that they are interested in these cultures will help motivate them in studying, whether the focus of the course is on the topic itself or on the English language. Learning about the people who speak a language can help the language seem more real to the students as a means of communication, not just an object of study. Studying culture can give students a more positive attitude toward the people who speak the language

Second, many students are interested in visiting English-speaking countries, and more and more of them have opportunities to do so. This provides a practical application for what they learn while it gives them additional motivation to learn about English-speaking countries.

Third, learning about another culture can help students not only understand that culture better but understand their own culture better. People who have not been exposed to other cultures are often not very aware of their own culture, partly because it seems natural to them, and they do not have to think about it. However, if they learn about another culture, they can compare and contrast that culture with their own culture and thus become more aware of their own culture.

Fourth, and perhaps most important, information about culture provides students with information that is useful in understanding English. Languages are related to the cultures in which they are spoken, and understanding the culture where a language is spoken is important to understanding that language. Speakers of a language do not just use language to communicate their meaning. They make use of the background knowledge of the reader/hearer, so that they do not have to give all the information they want to communicate explicitly. They make use of the associations that words and concepts have to communicate more than the meaning of individual words.

In the Classroom

Topics for American Culture

If you are going to teach about American culture, there are a wide variety of topics which are useful. The following is a short list of such topics. (These may be useful for other English-speaking cultures as well.) It is not intended to be complete or definitive.

1. American Characteristics
mobility
competition
independence
individualism
equal relations among individuals
rationalism

2. Literature
well-known authors
well-known literary works

3. History
colonial period
War of Independence
Constitution
Federalist Period
westward movement
Civil War
Reconstruction
World War I
World War II
famous people

4. Geography
states and regions
famous places

5. Religion

6. Superstitions

7. Daily life/Family life
cars
races, ethnic groups, and discrimination
homes
families
marriage
divorce
children
relationships among family members
jobs
hobbies and leisure time activities
culture and entertainment
sports

8. Food and drink
meals—what and when
between-meal snacks
typical foods

9. Education
primary education
secondary education
higher education
school life
classes
relationships with teachers

10. Clothes
women's clothes
men's clothes

formal occasions
informal occasions

11. Time
office hours
appointments
being punctual
Daylight Savings Time

12. Mass media
television
newspapers and magazines
movies

13. Special days
holidays
annual events
ceremonies

14. Names and titles
nicknames
forms of address

15. Measurement
liquid
weight
area
length
temperature

16. Travel
long distance travel
local travel
in big cities
in smaller cities and towns
to the suburbs

17. Communication
telephone

mail
letters
faxes
e-mail

18. Manners
table manners
table setting
table seating
introductions
thank-you notes
weddings and other ceremonies

19. Nonverbal communication
gestures
distance
touching
eye contact/gaze

20. Getting acquainted with Americans
making friends
problems with friends or roommates
conversation
dating
parties
holding social activities

Some Techniques for Teaching Culture

There are various ways to approach teaching culture. Obviously students can read essays about aspects of culture or listen to talks about it, but there are many other ways in which students can learn about English-speaking cultures. In this section, I will give some suggestions.

Dialogues

Dialogues can be used to communicate cultural information. They have the advantage that they are intended to represent real communication situations. For example, a dialogue between a Japanese and a British person comparing some aspect of their cultures can both introduce the aspect of British culture to the Japanese students and make them more aware of their own culture. In addition to the aspect of culture that is the subject of the dialogue, other types of information can be included, such as levels of politeness and forms of address.

Some information may be too complex to include in dialogues, so that information can be included in follow-up readings.

Using Audio-Visual Materials

In addition to reading and hearing about other cultures, it is useful for students to be able to see what they look like. It is not easy for students to imagine something that they have never seen. If they can see the things that they are learning about, those things will be much more meaningful. There are many videos available about famous places, holidays, daily life, business, and so on. Movies and television programs can also form a basis for lessons about culture and cultural differences. They can be used to teach about how people communicate in a culture, what family relationships and friendships are like, how people spend their leisure time, etc. In addition to videos, slides, posters, photos, and filmstrips can be used to teach about culture.

Various Other Materials and Activities

A wide variety of materials can be used for teaching about culture, depending on what the teacher wants to emphasize and what the other goals of the course are. Pieces of realia, such as recipes, advertisements, menus, wedding invitations and programs, and schedules are useful. Readings can include various types of formats, including letters, newspaper articles, poems, short stories, and brochures.

The materials mentioned above can be the basis for different activities related to culture, combining different skills. For example, menus can be used as a basis for a role play about ordering in a restaurant. Students can discuss advertisements and compare them to typical Japanese ads. Wedding invitations and programs can be used to introduce wedding customs and etiquette, and then the students can role play a wedding based on what they have learned. Students can be assigned to follow the instructions in a recipe and report on the results. They can read a newspaper article and write a letter to the editor about the situation.

Conclusion

Content courses are a useful way of teaching English, because they allow students to learn language while focusing on meaning. Content courses related to English-speaking cultures are particularly useful, because many students are interested in English-speaking cultures and because knowledge of English-speaking cultures is helpful in communicating in English. The aspects of culture that are covered depend on the goals of the course and the students needs and interests. Many different activities and materials can be used to teach about culture.

Discussion Questions

1. Which of these culture-based activities have you used yourself to learn English? Which did you feel were helpful?

2. Choose one of the activities described here, and demonstrate it.

Chapter 13

Choosing Materials

Keywords

published materials
teacher-made materials
role of materials
characteristics of materials
materials from the learners' viewpoint

Introduction

Materials have a great influence on language teaching, whether the teacher chooses to use published material as it is or adapt it or create material especially for a class. Therefore, decisions related to materials are important. In this chapter, we will discuss issues related to choosing and finding materials.

Textbooks vs. Teacher-Made Materials

Some teachers and theorists argue that materials should teach students to learn, that they should be resource books for ideas and activities for instruction/learning, and that they should give teachers rationales for what they do. From this point of view, textbooks are too inflexible to be used directly as instructional material. Therefore, only materials made by teachers specifically for their students are useful. Others, in contrast, argue that materials may be suitable for students' needs, even if it is not designed specifically for them, that textbooks make it possible for students to review and prepare their lessons, that textbooks are efficient in terms of time and money, and that textbooks can and should allow for adaptation and improvization.

It is true that in many cases teachers and students rely on textbooks to teach/learn English, and textbooks determine the components and methods of learning. That is, they control the contents, methods, and procedures of learning. Whatever is included in textbooks is learned by students, and the way textbooks present material is the way students learn it. The educational philosophy of textbooks will influence the class and the learning process. Therefore, in many cases, materials are the center of the instruction and one of the most important influences on what goes on in the classroom.

Theoretically, experienced teachers can teach English without published materials. It is not easy, and most of them do not have the time or energy to do it for every class, though they may do it for certain lessons, or parts of lessons. Most teachers do not have enough time to make supplementary materials, and they just follow their textbooks, so textbooks play an important role in language classes, and it is important to select a good textbook for the class.

What Are the Roles of Materials, in Relation to Other Elements?

Since the end of 1970s, there has been a movement to make the center of language instruction/learning learners rather than teachers. It is obvious that learners are more important than teachers, materials, curriculum, methods, and evaluation. As a matter of fact, curriculum, materials, teaching methods, and evaluation should all be designed for learners and their needs. It is the teacher's responsibility to check whether all of the elements of the learning process are working well for learners and to adapt them if they are not.

In other words, learners should be the center of instruction and learning. The curriculum is a statement of the goals of learning, the methods of learning, and so on. Teachers help learners to learn. They have to follow the curriculum and provide, make, or choose materials; they chose teaching methods; adapt, supplement, and elaborate on materials; monitor progress and needs of students; and evaluate students.

Materials include textbooks, video and audio tapes, computer software, and visual aids. They influence the content of learning with linguistic and cultural information and the procedure of learning with linguistic and instruction information, including the order of linguistic information presented. The instructional philosophy, approaches, and methods, such as deductive vs inductive learning, the role of memorization, the use of creativity and problem solving, production vs. reception, and the order in which materials are presented all influence the methods of learning.

Technology, such as OHP, slides, video and audio tape recorders, video cameras, and computers, support instruction/learning . (This will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 15.)

Evaluations (for example, tests) can be used to assign grades, check learning, give feedback to students, and improve instruction by giving feedback to the teacher.

Though students should be the center of instruction, in many cases, teachers and students rely on materials, and they become the center of instruction, that is, instruction covers them in the classroom, and students review them at home. Moreover, many teachers are busy and do not have the time or inclination to prepare extra materials. Textbooks and commercially produced materials, therefore, are very important in language instruction. Thus, it is important for teachers to know how to choose the best material for instruction, how to make supplementary materials for the class, and how to adapt materials.

What Are Characteristics of Materials?

Teaching materials have an underlying instructional philosophy, approach, method, and contents, both linguistic and cultural information. That is, choices made in writing textbooks are based on beliefs that the writers have about what language is and how it should be taught. For example, writers may use a certain approach, such as the aural-oral approach, and they choose certain methods and select the linguistic and cultural information to be included. In addition, materials have a hidden curriculum that includes attitudes toward knowledge, attitudes toward teaching and learning, attitudes toward the role and relationship of the teacher and student, and values and attitudes related to gender or society.

The following are some of the aspects in which materials are evaluated.

Language

English textbooks should have correct, natural, recent and standard English. Since students' vocabulary is limited, they should control vocabulary or provide information to help students understand vocabulary that they may not be familiar with. For lower level students, grammar should also be controlled. Many textbooks use narratives and essays. It would be useful to have a variety of literary forms (for example, newspaper articles, poetry, or letters), so that students can learn to deal with different forms.

Information on Culture

The cultural information included in English textbooks should be correct and recent. It should not be biased and should reflect background cultures of English. It should include visual aids etc., to help students understand cultural information.

From Learners' Viewpoints

Content. English textbooks should be useful, meaningful and interesting for students. While no one subject will be of interest to all students, materials should be chosen based, in part, on what students, in general, are likely to find interesting and motivating.

Difficulty. As a general rule, materials should be slightly higher in their level of difficulty than the students' current level of English proficiency. (Exceptions are usually made for extensive reading and listening materials, which should be easy enough for students to process without much difficulty.) Materials at a slightly higher level of difficulty than the students' current level of English proficiency allow them to learn new grammatical structures and vocabulary.

Instructional issues. English textbooks should have clear instructional procedures and methods, that is, the teacher and students should be able to understand what is expected in each lesson and for each activity.

Textbooks should have support for learning. This can take the form of vocabulary lists, exercises which cover or expand on the content, visual aids, and so on.

Traditionally, language teaching materials in Japan are made up mostly of text, with few if any visual aids. However, with the development of technology, particularly videos and computers, photos, visual materials and audio materials have become very important components of language teaching materials, and they are becoming easier to obtain. Teachers need to learn how to find them, and how to best exploit them.

Materials are getting more complicated, and instructional philosophy, approach, methods, and techniques are becoming more important. Teachers increasingly need to be able to evaluate materials using photos, videos, and computers.

How Can We Learn about Materials?

There are various ways to get information about textbooks and other teaching materials. Many materials are published by publishers and developed and distributed by commercial companies. Thus, publishers are useful (if not entirely unbiased) sources of information and advice about what materials are available and what materials are appropriate for various purposes. Many publishers provide sample copies on request. Bookstores that carry textbooks are another possible source of information. Clerks at such bookstores may help you find the materials you want. In addition, publishers' displays at conferences are very useful. They usually have the most recent educational materials, exhibitors are willing to help you and answer your questions, and in some cases, you will have opportunities to meet and talk with the authors. Colleagues and friends who are teachers are also good sources of recommendations of textbooks and advice about how to best use them. Finally, there is information from computer mailing lists and web pages on the Internet. Lists on language teaching often have discussions on materials, and you can ask any questions and may get good feedback. Many publishers have www pages and e-mail addresses, you can check with them and also ask questions about the materials.

How Do We Get Materials?

In addition to publishers, there are many possible sources of materials. There is a lot of material available on the Internet. You can search for materials when you have free time, and store them for your future classes. (See Chapter 18, "Using the Internet for Teaching English.")

Many teachers go abroad during vacations these days, and they can collect materials in English-speaking countries. TV and radio are good sources. They provide a variety of materials. The information is current and the language is natural. Content has to be chosen carefully of course. Newspapers, magazines, advertisements, and other types of printed materials are very useful. Teachers can take photos, make video tapes or record audio tapes. If they make plans before they go overseas, they may make really good video or audio programs.

Even in your home country, you can browse the world wide web and search for useful materials for classes. There are lots of sources of materials on the Internet. You can find lists of World Wide Web sites and also links to such sites at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/book.htm.

Concerns about Materials

The market for language teaching materials is fairly large, and many companies are competing. They produce new materials and promote them with many advertisements and through their salespeople. You need to be careful about what they tell you. You always need to examine their materials carefully from the point of view of what is appropriate for your students and the classes you are teaching.

Another concern about materials is the copyright issue. Many teachers violate the copyright laws every day. Teachers cannot copy copyrighted materials and use them without the permission of the publisher.

Conclusion

Though learners should be the center of instruction, materials tend to control the instruction, since teachers and learners tend to rely heavily on them. Materials that are appropriate for a particular class need to have an underlying instructional philosophy, approach, method and technique which suit the students and their needs. They should have correct, natural, current and standard English. The materials should suit students and their needs and goals. Teachers need to look for good materials, both commercial and non-commercial, all the time. They also need to be aware of commercialism and copyright issues.

Discussion Questions

Look at a textbook or textbooks and answer the following questions.

1. What are the characteristics of the textbook(s), based on the list in the section "What are Characteristics of the Materials?"

2. Would you use this textbook, if you were teaching a course in an appropriate subject?

Chapter 14

Evaluation

Keywords

reasons for testing
common problems with test items
pretesting
testing communicative competence

Introduction

Most language programs require some form of evaluation, so it is often necessary to give tests. Though many teachers give tests only because they have to, there are also good reasons to do so. If the tests and their results are used wisely, testing may also be beneficial to the students, the teacher, and the program as a whole. In this chapter, we will discuss reasons for testing and some common difficulties with test items and how to avoid them as well as some general issues related to testing and the testing of grammar and testing language skills communicatively. Testing has also been dealt with in the chapters related to individual skills.

Why Do Testing?

If tests are used only to give students grades, they are being underused. Tests can also be used to help students by giving them feedback about how well they are doing and in what areas they are weak and help the teacher see particular students' weaknesses and strengths. Tests can also give teachers feedback about their own teaching and see how students are doing in order to allow them to improve their own effectiveness and to make adjustments in their teaching. Tests help the teacher see exactly what the students' areas of difficulty are and guide them in giving the students remedial work or additional practice on those areas. Finally, testing may also help the teacher see weaknesses in the materials, that is, it helps the teacher recognize where explanations are unclear or otherwise insufficient, where not enough practice of a particular point is given.

Tests may have the effect of motivating students to study or prepare for the test in a particular way, an effect that is called backwash. Backwash refers to the fact that the test influences the learning of the students. When students know that they will be tested, that knowledge influences what they study and how they study, because studying certain material or in a certain way will help them do well on the test. Backwash has the potential to be either beneficial or harmful. If the test becomes the focus of the class, and if the test is divorced from the real use of the language, this can cause harmful backwash, because students are studying in a way that helps them do well on the test but not use language better in real life. In contrast, if the skills that students will be developing in order to take the test are also skills that are useful to them in communicating, that is beneficial. In other words, if tests are designed wisely, they can motivate students to do the kinds of things that they ought to be doing in order to learn to communicate effectively in a language. If tests are poorly designed, they motivate students to concentrate on preparing for the test itself and not on communicating in the language.

Some Common Problems with Test Items

There are certain problems that typically come up in test items or types of tests. Writing a perfect test item is difficult or impossible, and you cannot necessarily avoid all problems. However, being aware of some of the common problems will help you avoid them or compensate for them in other ways, or at least to take the issue into account in evaluating the results.

Multiple Choice Items

Good multiple choice items are very difficult to write, and multiple choice items are an indirect way of testing language proficiency. However, because of their ease of grading, multiple choice item are practical for many situations. By following some guidelines, you can at least avoid some of the potential problems. These guidelines help you make sure that you are testing the students' knowledge of language, not their test-taking skills.

The following are guidelines for writing multiple choice questions:

1. Do not make an alternative that is the opposite of the correct alternative. When there are two opposites, one is generally the correct answer.

2. Do not make two incorrect answers with the same meaning. Since they must both be wrong, they will both be eliminated.

3. The alternatives should be approximately the same length. If there is a very short alternative or a very long one, it is generally correct.

4. In the case of vocabulary items as well as other types of multiple choice questions, it is important that the alternatives be easy to understand so that it is the head word, the content of the reading, etc., that is being tested, not the ability to understand the alternatives. Also the items should be of about the same level of difficulty.

5. Care should be taken to avoid having more than one possible correct answer. (Pretesting will help eliminate such problems.)

6. In the case of reading texts, questions and alternatives in multiple choice questions (as well as other types of questions) should avoid wording that is exactly like the main text. If the wording is too similar to the main text, testees will just match the wording without really understanding the meaning. Also, the incorrect alternatives should be based on possible misunderstandings of the meaning of the text. If you have incorrect answers to short answer questions from another class, these are a good basis for incorrect alternatives.

True/False Questions

Probably the most common type of task is true/false questions. They are particularly useful for progress tests, since they can be constructed relatively quickly and easily, and they are also easy to mark. The drawback of true/false tests, though, are that testees have a fifty/fifty chance of getting the correct answer, meaning that the facility value is likely to be around 75 percent. This means that the test may not discriminate well between high and low level students, unless there are a lot of questions.

When you write true/false questions, making an "insufficient information" option is useful, because it makes guessing less of a factor and decreases the possibility of getting a correct answer by chance. (Introducing a penalty for guessing is another way of dealing with guessing.)

Like multiple choice questions, the wording of true/false questions should paraphrase the words in the text of a reading, not repeat it. Also, false statements should reflect a possible misunderstanding of the text. Again, incorrect answers to short answer questions may be a guide to good false statements.

You should also avoid such words as "always" or "never." Questions with these words tend to be false (or at least include insufficient information), so they should be avoided.

Pretesting

Whatever form of test you choose, you should pretest it. What may seem to you to be a perfectly clear and reasonable question may have problems. The question may be ambiguous, or it may have more than one possible answer (which is a problem with a multiple choice question, but may not be a problem with other types of questions). It may be much more difficult to answer than you anticipated, or the answer that it produces may not tell you what you wanted to know about the testee's knowledge or skill. If possible, you should pre-test the test on a group similar to the students who will be taking the test. Even if that is not possible, you should get someone to take the test and give you comments on the questions or tasks.

Testing Communicative Competence

Testing language has traditionally taken the form of testing knowledge about language, usually the testing of knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. However, there is much more to being able to use language than knowledge about it. The basic idea of communicative competence is the ability to use language appropriately, both receptively and productively, in real situations.

Communicative language tests are intended to be a measure of how the testees are able to use language in real life situations. In testing productive skills, emphasis is placed on appropriateness rather than on ability to form grammatically correct sentences. In testing receptive skills, emphasis is placed on understanding the communicative intent of the speaker or writer rather than on picking out specific details. And, in fact, the two are often combined in communicative testing, so that the testee must both comprehend and respond in real time. In real life, the different skills are not often used entirely in isolation.

The "communicativeness" of a test might be seen as being on a continuum. Few tests are completely communicative; many tests have some element of communicativeness. For example, a test in which testees listen to an utterance on a tape and then choose from among three choices the most appropriate response is more communicative than one in which the testees answer a question about the meaning of the utterance. However, it is less communicative than one in which the testees are face-to-face with the interlocutor (rather than listening to a tape) and are required to produce an appropriate response.

The test should reflect the communicative situation in which the testees are likely to find themselves. In cases where the testees do not have a specific purpose, the language that they are tested on can be directed toward general social situations where they might be in a position to use English. This basic assumption influences the tasks chosen to test language in communicative situations. A communicative test of listening, then, would test not whether the testee could understand what the utterance, "Would you mind putting the groceries away before you leave" means, but place it in a context and see if the testee can respond appropriately to it.

Examples of Communicative Test Tasks

Information gap. An information gap activity is one in which two or more testees work together, though it is possible for a confederate of the examiner rather than a testee to take one of the parts. Each testee is given certain information but also lacks some necessary information. The task requires the testees to ask for and give information. The task should provide a context in which it is logical for the testees to be sharing information.

This kind of task would be evaluated using a system of band scales. The band scales would emphasize such factors as the testee's ability to give and receive information or to express and elicit opinions. If its intention were communicative, it would probably not emphasize pronunciation or grammatical correctness, except to the extent that these might interfere with communication. The examiner should be an observer and not take part in the activity, since it is difficult to both take part in the activity and evaluate it. Also, the activity should be tape recorded, if possible, so that it could be evaluated later and it does not have to be evaluated in real time.

Role Play. In a role play, the testee is given a situation to play out with another person. The testee is given in advance such information as what his/her role is, and what specific functions he/she needs to carry out. A role play task would be similar to the above information gap activity, except that it would not involve an information gap. Usually the examiner or a confederate takes one part of the role play.

Letter writing. In many situations, testees might have to write business letters, letters asking for information, etc. The letter would be evaluated using a band scale, based on compliance with formal letter writing layout, the content of the letter, inclusion of correct and relevant information, and so on.

Summarizing. Testees might be given a long passage—for example, 400 words—and be asked to summarize the main points in less than 100 words. To make this task communicative, the testees should be given realistic reasons for doing such a task. For example, the longer text might be an article that their boss would like to have summarized so that he/she can incorporate the main points into a talk. The summary would be evaluated, based on the inclusion of the main points of the longer text.

Combining listening and writing. Listening and writing may also be tested in combination. In this case, testees are given a listening text and they are instructed to write down certain information from the text, perhaps in a chart. Again, although this is not interactive, it should somehow simulate a situation where information would be written down from a spoken text.

Scoring the Test

Once you give a test, you have to score it. In scoring a test, it is necessary to make the scoring as objective as possible, even if the test is a subjective one. That means that all the graders are grading using the same standard, or, if there is only one grader, that the grader uses the same standard for all papers.

Tests can be machine graded or hand graded. Each has advantages and disadvantages. Also, tests can be graded objectively or subjectively. However, even if they are graded subjectively, the grader needs to used some kind of standard, such as band scores, to help him/her be consistent.

For a class test, the best way to find errors in marking is to return the test to the students with the correct answers and the points assigned for each question. Students can check the scoring and calculate the total scores themselves. This will be good feedback and double checks the grading. In addition, you should explain the reasons why the correct answers are correct. This makes a good review of the material.

Evaluating Instruction

Teachers should also use test results to improve instruction. First of all, you should check the overall scores. If the scores are too low, for example less than 50%, the instruction may not have been effective. You should check to see whether students have learned the important points covered in the class. (If more than 80% of the students got an item correct, that item was well covered in instruction.) If students appear to have missed the important points, these points should be reviewed or at least mentioned when the test scores are returned.

In some cases, items on which students do poorly are about vague, abstract ideas. If that appears to be a problem, you need to think about how to teach these points more concretely. Perhaps some of the points have been presented only orally and should be presented in writing.

Improving Tests

You can also use the results of a test to improve that test, using such information as difficulty level, item analyses, and problems that came up. That way, you can build up a test bank of tests and test items that have been used with previous students and improved. Writing good test items takes time and energy, and it is a good idea to make the best use of the items you write, improving them and reusing them. Fortunately, word processors make this process easier today, and it is not difficult to keep tests, revise them, and pull them up when you need them.

Any test items that are too easy or too difficult may have to be revised. If an item is too easy, many teachers may be tempted to try to replace it with tricky questions. However, that is not a good idea. Tests should not trick students but should remind them of important concepts covered in the class and see how well they have mastered those concepts. Tricky questions may discriminate, for example, between students who read or listen carefully and those who don't, but that is not the purpose of the tests.

If students get very low grades on items related to one concept, and the question seems to be too difficult though it is otherwise a good one, you should consider making it easier and keeping both versions, the easier one for lower level students and the more difficult one for advanced students.

In some cases, students make mistakes not because they have not mastered the concept but because they have misunderstood the question or how they are expected to respond. In that case, the item is not really measuring students' language proficiency. If a question appears to be misleading students, you need to rewrite the question more clearly and concretely, so that all the students can understand it.

The results of tests are not only for assigning the grades to students, but also evaluating the tests themselves. If the questions are too easy or too difficult, you should check whether they are good questions. If a particular question is not good, it might be eliminated from the test for the purpose of calculating students' grades.

Even if we decide to include them, we need to revise them for the future tests. Checking the test results carefully gives good feedback to students, and it permits teachers to evaluate instruction, and to wrire better tests in the future. It is important to revise questions when we analyze the test results.

Conclusion

Testing, when used wisely, can be used for more than just assigning grades. It can be used to provide feedback, for both the teacher and the students. Properly made tests can also be used to motivate students to study in ways that will help them not only do well on the test but also improve their English. However, there are many potential problems with test items, and teachers should be aware of and avoid common problems. Trying to make tests more communicative can have beneficial effects.

Discussion Questions

Look at a test. What skill(s) does it test? To what extent is it communicative? Do you see any of the problems discussed above?

Chapter 15

Using Technology for Language Teaching

Keywords

advantages of technology
disadvantages of technology
tape recorders
overhead projectors
video cassette recorders
computers

Introduction

Blackboards have been available in the classroom for a long time for explaining or giving tasks or exercises. We have also used overhead projectors (OHP) and tape recorders for the past quarter to half century. Nowadays technology has been further developed, and there are many pieces of equipment available for language teaching. Using them effectively can improve our language classes. However, they are very expensive, and we should make the most effective use of them that we can. Also, we have to keep in mind that, if we misuse technology, we can end up with more work for less effective classes. In this chapter, we will consider advantages and disadvantages of technology, and in the following chapter, we will give some suggestions for using technology effectively.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Technology

Technology has both advantages and disadvantages, and in using technology, it is important to have a clear idea of both. Even though technology can present materials in ways that are not easy or not possible otherwise, it also has some disadvantages, so the teacher needs to weigh the advantages against the disadvantages.

It should be emphasized first, however, that no technology is better than the materials that it is being used with. A computer, for example, does not make good materials out of materials that are not already pedagogically sound. The material has to be pedagogically sound, and computers can make it available in a more flexible way, give students individual access to it, adjust the speed of presentation, etc., but computers cannot make good materials out of bad materials.

Tape Recorders

Recordings have been used in language teaching for more than a century, and today, they are played generally on audio tape recorders. Tape recorders have some important advantages. They make it possible to bring the voices of native English speakers in the classroom. If the teacher is not a native English speaker, the tape recorder may be the only source of such voices in the classroom. Even if the teacher is a native speaker, tape recorders can be used to play dialogues and also provide more variety of voices. If the recordings are done well, tape recorders provide natural or natural-sounding conversation or other speech. Tape recordings are flexible. They can be played over and over. The whole tape can be played, or just small parts of it.

On the other hand, tape recorders do have some disadvantages. They do not provide any of the non-verbal cues or information about the situation that is part of communication. When using a tape recorder, the teacher has to be careful to give information about the situation that will help students with listening comprehension. Also, not all tapes are well made. Even commercially made tapes can contain English that is stilted and unnatural. Even when there are hesitation devices, pauses, the conversation might not sound really natural. (Of course, for lower level students, conversation that is "too natural" may be too difficult.)

Overhead Projectors

Overhead projectors are useful in presenting information. They can be used to present words, pictures, maps, photos, etc., in color. They can be used to present the important points that you are making in a sentence or two, in order to strongly emphasize those points, and to support those points with illustrations, graphs, and charts. Thanks to the development of copying machine technology, it is possible to make a variety of transparencies easily. The development of word processors makes it possible to use different sizes and fonts of letters.

While OHPs give you a great deal of flexibility in your teaching, you need to think carefully about how you are presenting the material. If you do not, your students will find the information more confusing, not less.

Video Cassette Recorders

Video cassette recorders are a relatively recent addition to classroom technology, and they bring many advantages. They make it possible to see pictures and sounds together, providing more information about the context and non-verbal cues than audio tape recorders do. VCRs thus bring something of "real life" into the classroom. Students tend to have a natural interest in something that is shown on video.

Video teaching materials are widely available. There are many commercial English language teaching video tapes, with print support material. If you want to use authentic videos, it is easy to get access to such materials and to edit them. There are many English programs on television, including ones available by satellite, and even through cable television in some areas. The difficulties are in choosing good material and in making the support materials, which is a great deal of work. This will be discussed later in the chapter.

Computers

Computers have many uses related to language teaching, but these can be divided into three major categories—1) computers as a teaching tool, 2) computers as a management tool, and 3) computers as a teacher resource. In this section, I will discuss each of those.

Computers as a teaching/learning tool. Students tend to be interested in computers, and they are therefore likely to be motivated to use them.

Computers are an excellent resource, with an amazingly wide variety of information. They give students access to such references as electronic dictionaries, encyclopedias, and thesauruses, which are easier to use then they are in book form. There are also many different kinds of information on-line, ranging from movie reviews to information about the American Civil War to on-line newspapers from all over the world. The World Wide Web, an immense network of computer links, is very easy to use, even for people who are not familiar with computers. Many computer materials are supplemented with pictures and even with sound and are more interesting than ordinary written materials.

Students can use computers to communicate with other learners all over the world. This allows them to meet many interesting people and to use English to actually communicate their own ideas and learn about the ideas of others. There are lists for students to discuss different subjects, and also lists for teachers interested in arranging pen pal exchanges for their students.

Students can use computers as a drill machine or a tutorial machine, and they can practice language by themselves.

Students can use games and simulations for more creative work. While using computers, students can help each other, use different types of knowledge to work on them, and they can develop different skills and knowledge. There are an increasing number of computer-based teaching materials available, and they are becoming more sophisticated, making better and better use of the advantages of computers.

Computers can be used as word processors in composition courses. Students can use them to write compositions. Students can exchange files and read each other's compositions. Compositions can be presented to the class as a whole. If e-mail is available, the students can e-mail compositions to the teacher, who can comment on them and return them the same way. Because using a word processor makes editing easier, the students can easily revise their composition in response to the comments from others or as they develop their own thinking on their topic. There are many ways to use computers to help improve their students' writing.

Computers make it easy for students to make newsletters, booklets, or web pages to express themselves. They can use photos, drawings, and sounds, in addition to the text, and they can make an elaborate publication.

Computers as a management tool. Computers can collect the results of exercises that students do at the computer, grade them, and computer statistics describing them. This information can be used to give feedback to students and to evaluate the teaching, the class, or the materials. Teachers can use a spread sheet program to do such work as keep records of student work and calculate grades.

Computers and the Internet as a teacher resource. Teachers can use computers to communicate with other professionals to get information that is useful for their professional development. There are many mailing lists related to different aspects of teaching, and teachers can discuss such subjects as how to teach more effectively and where to get certain information.

As mentioned above, the Internet is a huge resource, and teachers can find many different kinds of teaching materials on it. There are materials that the teacher can adapt and make exercises for, and even some sites that have materials that are intended for use in English language classes. Lists related to language teaching have archives with teaching materials, and teachers can post information on their web pages.

Teachers can use a word processor to prepare handouts, exams, and other documents necessary for teaching. Word processors make it easier to make such materials, and to revise them easily to use them in the future.

Teachers can also use a database program to keep a record of materials. This helps you access materials quickly and organize materials for specific lesson plans.

Conclusion. As computers get more sophisticated, and as there is more information available on the Internet, more people on-line, and more computer-based teaching materials, computers will become an even more valuable resource.

General Disadvantages of Technology

Above we explained some of the advantages and uses of technology, along with some of the disadvantages of specific technologies. In this section, we will discuss some general disadvantages of technology.

Any electronic equipment costs money. Sophisticated equipment can be very expensive. The expense is not only in purchasing the equipment but in maintaining it. Getting funds to purchase equipment is not easy. Getting funds for maintenance is even more difficult.

When you purchase electronic equipment, you have to consider what to buy. It is necessary to get information from many catalogues, talk with technicians and sales people, find out what it is that teachers think they need and will use, match teachers' needs with the equipment you are considering buying, discuss major purchases in meetings, negotiate with administrators, etc.

Once you have purchased it, you need to learn to use it effectively and make sure that all teachers know of its availability and how to use it, if they want to. This takes energy and time. You may need to read manuals or attend workshops and learn how to use the equipment effectively. You need to find materials to use with it. You need to experiment with using it and learn how to use it smoothly and effectively in the classroom. Using any machine requires planning ahead, so you need to make sure it will work, make sure there is a convenient electric socket, etc. You need to learn how other people are using it and exchange ideas to use it better.

Many people believe that technology saves labor, and we can do anything easily with it. However, judging from our experience, it has increased our work, but it has made our teaching more effective. Once we get accustomed to using technology, it can a very powerful tool. However, it is just a tool, and, as mentioned above, it is no better than the materials it is being used with. It is still necessary to emphasize the content of the materials.

Technology has a great deal of potential for improving language teaching, administration, and for providing resources for the teacher. It can bring the outside world into the language classroom, as well as providing resources for students that would otherwise not be available. However, both the strengths and weaknesses of technology must be kept in mind. In spite of all its advantages, technology is expensive and can be difficult to use. As a teacher, you need to weigh the advantages against these and other disadvantages and decide whether the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. Also, technology can be misused, and the technology, rather than the content of the lesson, can become the focus. You need to be aware of both the advantages and drawbacks of technology in choosing to use it, so that the advantages can be maximized while the drawbacks are minimized.

Conclusion

Technology can be a great advantage in the language classroom, but teachers should recognize that technology is not the answer to every problem, and in fact, technology is no better than the teaching materials that it is used to present. Teachers who choose to use technology should be aware of its advantages, disadvantages, and potential problems.

Discussion Questions

1. Which of these technologies have you used as a student to learn English? Have you had any experiences where you felt that the technology enhanced your learning? Any experiences where you felt that technology interfered with your learning?

2. On what basis do you rate the usefulness of a type of technology? Convenience? Motivation of students? Others? How do the technologies discussed here rate, based on the criteria you developed?

Chapter 16

Suggestions for Using Technology

Keywords

overhead projectors
tape recorders
video tape recorders
computers

Introduction

You are almost certain to use some sort of technology, with all its advantages and disadvantages, when you teach. In this chapter, we will give some concrete suggestions that will help you enhance the advantages and avoid the disadvantages.

Using Technology

Overhead Projectors (OHP)

Preparing transparencies. Transparancies can be prepared in advance, and this is an advantage over writing on the blackboard, but it also makes it important to plan ahead and present the material in the best, clearest way that you can. The words and numbers should be large enough to be read easily, and you should not try to crowd too much into each transparency. You should think about what material is best presented as a list of points, in a graph, or as a picture.

You can make use of color on the transparencies. These can make the transparencies clearer, can draw attention to important points, and make the transparencies more interesting. For example, when you are writing the main message in black, you can use red to emphasize the most important points. You can use blue or green to make different kinds of points. Using different colors for different purposes can make your transparencies easier to understand.

If you have more than one transparency, be sure to keep the transparencies in the order that you plan to use them.

You can create the text that you want to use on a word processor. This allows you to make letters of different sizes, styles, etc. Also when you prepare it with a word processor, you can use bold face type, italics or underlining. Using a variety of types of letters can help you convey meanings more effectively. Then you can use a copying machine to make the transparency. If you have a color copying machine, you can present multicolored materials.

You can use illustrations such as photos, maps, and pictures, as long as you can use a copying machine to reproduce it. However, if you are going to use such visuals, you should try them out with the OHP before using them in class, so you can see how they look. The projection distorts the picture slightly, and you need to see how it looks. Also, you may find that the visual is too complex to work well with an OHP.

You can organize your material so that you put two or even more transparencies together. This makes it possible to show what is on one transparency first, and then add something else later, or to compare or contrast two or more things.

You should be sure to put your transparencies in order before the class starts. It is helpful to put a title or other identifying word at the top of each transparency so you can identify it quickly. You should also put a white piece of paper under each transparency (either the original that the transparency was copied from or a blank piece of paper). This makes it easy to see what is on the transparency.

Using transparencies in class. Just before the class starts, it is important to turn on the switch and focus the OHP. This saves time and trouble once the class starts, and avoids problems later. If possible, you should place the OHP in a place where you will not have to walk over the cord. If necessary, you can tape the cord to the floor. (This advice goes for anything you use that has an electrical cord.)

You should also check the lighting in the room, because you may need to adjust it. If it is too bright, people cannot see the screen very well. However, you do not need to make the room very dark, and you can usually leave the room light enough to allow students to take notes.

In class, you can write on a transparency as you talk. This process is similar to writing on a blackboard, but it is better, because you can keep facing your students as you write—you do not have to turn around to write, as you do when you write on the blackboard.

When you present transparencies, you can show only the part you are presently talking about and hide the rest with a piece of paper. This helps prevent the students from reading ahead and becoming distracted from what you are saying. As you continue to explain further, you can show the new part.

There are some commercially made transparencies, and you can purchase them. Some American textbooks have OHP transparencies with them, and it is useful to get those if you use those textbooks. You should check whether textbooks have transparencies with them. If you want to write on the prepared transparency, you can put a blank transparency on top and write on it. Then you keep the original transparency clean.

You should make sure that all transparencies are in the order of presentations. If you have many and cannot find the right one, it takes much time to find it. It is not a good idea to show your incapability to your students.

When you are not using an OHP, it is a good idea to turn it off. This reduces the noise, and allows it to cool.

After the class. It takes time to prepare good transparencies for complicated materials, but once you make them and keep them in order, you can use them in other classes. Thus, you should think how useful those materials will be in the future. If you think you would be able to use them many times, you should invest much time and effort. You can put titles or key words at the tops of transparencies, and keep records of what you have. This makes it easier to find what you need later.

Tape Recorders

The tape recorder and the tapes. For use in the classroom, you need a good quality tape recorder, which you can play at a loud volume without distorting the sounds.

You should mark all your tapes with titles or key words on the labels, so that it is easy to find them. For tapes that you plan to keep, you should remove the tags so that no one can record over the tape by mistake. (The same is true for video tapes).

If you edit tapes, you need to set the tape recorder at the same volume for each part of the tape and avoid clicking sounds by using the pause button before you push record. Always try to make copies from the original rather than copying a copy. You will lose the quality of the tape each time you copy.

Using a tape recorder in class. When you are using a tape in class, you should set the counter, if there is one, at zero at the point you begin. You may need to play it again, and it is important to set the dial at zero to find that spot after you play it. If you will be skipping around, be sure to note in advance the counter numbers for all the places you plan to move.

Video Tape Recorders

Among the first steps in using video in the classroom is choosing material. When choosing materials for video cassette recorders, it is important to choose material that is of interest to students. It is difficult to generalize, but mysteries, adventures, and sometimes romances are popular. You should also choose materials that exploit the potential of combining audio and video. That is, you should use materials where part of the information is included in the video portion of the tape, not just pictures of people's heads as they are talking. As a general rule, it is best to choose a clip that combines talk and action. You should also be careful to choose a video clip for each class that is not too long. If you are using authentic video, or even a near-natural video produced for non-native speakers, more than 5-10 minutes is likely to be too long for a 90-minute class. Thus you must choose material that can be naturally divided into such segments.

There are more and more commercial videos available for English language teaching, and these have print support material. The quality of the print support material is very important, because it helps students get the most out of the video material. The support materials help the students understand the content of the video, emphasize lexical and grammatical points and may give students opportunities to practice them, and point out cultural aspects of the story.

As mentioned above, you may also choose to use authentic video, but you need to be aware that the making of print support materials is very time consuming. You need to identify difficult vocabulary and grammatical points and help students with them. You can make materials to perform the functions mentioned above and others.

It is generally a good idea if the materials allow students to listen to the clip several times with different tasks. For example, the first task can be looking for answers to questions which involve only watching. The next task might have true/false questions, and the third task might be a chart of fill-in-the-blank exercise. (Students can have an audio tape of the clip so that they can listen independently.)

While using video, you should be careful to monitor your students' comprehension of the video materials. Videos generally have a story, which helps students with comprehension, but that advantage is lost if students lose the thread of the story. As you go along, you can talk to students about their understanding of the story and how they feel about the helpfulness of the print support materials, especially if you made them yourself.

.Computers

Using computers means a great deal of planning ahead. It means choosing good software, being thoroughly familiar with them yourself, and making good plans to orient the students to the use of the computers and software. If you do not plan ahead, there will be a great deal of confusion, and the result will be frustration and wasted time.

When having students use computers, it is necessary to have a good orientation to the use of the computer and the programs that students will be using. (This includes e-mail, if students are communicating with the teacher or each other by e-mail, the World Wide Web, if students are going to use its resources, and word processing programs.) Students should be given step-by-step instructions about what they need to do and how to use each of the programs that they will use. It is important to plan the pace of the orientation carefully so that you do not give too much instruction at once, especially if students do not have much experience with computers. It is usually best to prepare handouts with clear, concrete instructions. It is time-consuming, both to plan the orientation and to carry it out, but in the long run, it will save time and frustration.

Databases are very useful for keeping records of teaching materials, and spread sheets can be helpful for keeping students' grades, but you need to plan carefully how you build up such records. Think in advance about what information you want to keep and how you can best organize it, because changing it later can waste a great deal of time and effort.

Conclusion

Technology is commonly used in language classrooms, and it will surely become more common in the future. It is therefore important to know the strengths and weaknesses of technology in order to choose appropriate technology and try to avoid the weaknesses.

Application Exercise

Choose one of the technologies and prepare a lesson using it. Why was that technology appropriate? How did it enhance the students' learning? What problems did you encounter?

Chapter 17

Resources for English Teachers

Keywords

professional organizations
conferences
regional meetings
publications
commercial publications
on-line resources

Introduction

Even after they graduate and start working, it is important for English language teachers to continue to develop themselves professionally, to keep up with trends and developments in the field, and to get ideas for their classes. There are various sources for information, including professional organizations; publications such as journals, books and textbooks; and on-line resources (resources on computer networks). In this chapter, we will introduce you to some of these.

Professional Organizations

There are many professional organizations for language teachers in Japan and abroad. You should consider joining one or more of them, because they are a good source for information and a good way to meet other teachers.

The largest organization for English language teachers is TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages), and it is based in the United States. It has a major conference once a year in March or April and several publications. Contact information for TESOL is:

1600 Cameron Street, Suite 300
Alexandria, Virginia, 22314-2751 USA
Tel. 703-836-0774, Fax 703-836-7864
e-mail: tesol@tesol.edu
Web page: http://www.tesol.edu/index.html

TESOL has about twenty special interest groups which are for people with interest in certain areas of ELT. You can find information about them at http://www.tesol.edu/isaffil/isframes.html. If you join one of them, you will receive their newsletter, and you will obtain more specialized information in that field. Also, if you attend a TESOL conference, you can follow the presentations related to the special interests groups you might be interested in.

TESOL has three serial publications — *TESOL Quarterly*, which is published four times a year and includes academic papers; *TESOL Journal*, which is also published quarterly and includes articles on practical aspects of English language teaching; and TESOL Matters, a bimonthly publication which covers issues and events of interest to language teachers.

TESOL has affiliated professional organizations (http://www.tesol.edu/isaffil/affil.html) in many countries, and if you join any of those, you will receive some information about TESOL. In Japan, JALT (Japan Association of Language Teaching) is the TESOL affiliate.

The second largest language teachers' organization is IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language). It is based in Britain and also has an annual conference in the spring and publications. Contact information is:

3 Kingsdown Chambers
Whitstable, Kent, UK, CT5 2FL
Web page: http://www.man.ac.uk/IATEFL/

IATEFL has fourteen special interest groups—1. Business English, 2. Computers, 3. ELT Management, 4. English for Specific Purposes, 5. Global Issues, 6. Learner Independence, 7. Literature and British Studies, 8. Pronunciation, 9. Research, 10. Teacher Development, 11. Teacher

Trainers, 12. Testing, Evaluation and Assessment, 13. Media, and 14. Young Learners (http://www.man.ac.uk/IATEFL/iatefl.html#SIG).

IATELF publishes a newsletter, *IATEFL Issues*. In addition, some of the special interest groups publish newsletters.

IATEFL also has affiliated organizations, and JALT is its affiliate in Japan.

In Japan, there are a number of organizations for teachers. JACET (Japan Association of College English Teachers) is an association for English teachers at the college level. Their web page can be found at http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jacet/. Some of the chapters have study groups for people who have special interests, which are smaller than special interest groups in TESOL and IATEFL and more research-oriented groups with small numbers of people.

JACET has special interest groups on English for Specific Purposes and English and Computers. Publications include the *JACET Newsletter* and the *JACET Bulletin*.

JALT (Japan Association for Language Teaching) is an organization for language teachers at all levels and of any language. It has a large national conference, publications, and active local chapters. In addition, there are national special interest groups related to many areas such as CALL, materials writing, video, bilingualism, and global development. JALT emphasizes teacher training and has many meetings in more than thirty chapters all over Japan. Contact information is:

JALT Central Office
Urban Edge Building 5th Floor
1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku,
Tokyo 110 JAPAN
TEL:03-3837-1630
FAX:03-3837-1631
web page: http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/
http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/main/chaptersnsigs.html (Chapters)
http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/main/about.html (Special Interest Groups)

LLA (Language Laboratory Association of Japan) is an organization specifically dealing with language laboratories and technology in language teaching. It has national conferences, publications, and active regional groups. Contact information is:

General Manager: Tatsuro Isikawa
Registrar's Office
Seitoku University
531 Sagamidai, Matsudo-shi, Chiba 271
Phone: 0473-65-111
web page: http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/lla/

LLA Kansai Chapter has four special interest groups, and they seem to be active. Its web page is at http://www.hll.kutc.kansai-u.ac.jp:8000/.

There are also several organizations for high school English teachers, including Zeneiren and Shin Eiken. Contact information is:

Zeneiren
Ryokoku Senior High School
1-7-14 Etobashi, Sumida-ku, Tokyo 130
Phone 03-3631-2890
Web page: http://www.ipc.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/~kyoei/zenkok.html

Shin Eiken
%Sanyusha Shuppan
1-19-23 Otowa Bunkyo-ku, Tokyo 112
Phone 03-3946-0285
Web page: http://www.seafolknet.or.jp/~kenjis/sineiken/index_j.html

For information about other organizations, see http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/Japanese/online/#gakkai or http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/organi.htm.

Conferences

As mentioned above, many of these professional organizations hold annual or biannual conferences, some of them attended by several hundred or even several thousand people. Teachers and researchers make presentations, do demonstrations of teaching activities or methods, and give workshops on certain skills, approaches, or technologies at these conferences. Most organizations announce conferences through their own and other newsletters and, recently, on the Internet.

Attending conferences can be a very valuable experience, but the presentations, workshops and demonstrations are not the only place you will learn. Meeting people is an important aspect of conferences. You can meet people who have interests or situations similar to yours. You may meet people whose books, papers, or articles you have read. You can sometimes keep in contact the people you have met to exchange information or work together. Nowadays, it is very easy to keep in contact by e-mail, fax and phone, and having met other people face to face can help you communicate better with them.

In addition to the academic presentations, conferences often have publishers' exhibitions. You will find new academic books, textbooks, and other kinds of materials. It is a good place to look for publications. You can talk with salespeople and editors and sometimes even meet authors or developers. They can give you advice about the best textbooks for your situation (though keep in mind that their advice is not entirely unbiased). Such publishers' exhibitions are generally your best chance to look at computer software and videos. This is one of your few chances to try out a variety of programs and videos and ask questions of knowledgeable people.

Attending conferences can be very stimulating and even inspiring. You will learn a lot and find many teachers who are working on projects, doing research, and developing materials. That can help motivate you to work on your own professional development. You may find many better ways or new ways to teach.

Information about conferences can be found in the publications of the sponsoring organizations. In addition, many organizations' newsletters list related conferences. If you do not belong to an organization, you can check your school library for such lists. In addition, links to web pages about conferences can be found at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/organi.htm#conf. Commercial journals have an announcement section, where such conference announcements are published.

Regional Meetings

Many professional organizations also have local or regional meetings. These may be held once a month or less frequently, and are likely to have only one speaker or a panel of speakers on one subject. These meetings have the advantages that presentations are generally more in depth, because they are longer than most conference presentations; you can choose meetings that are specifically related to your interests; and because they are often small, you have more of an opportunity to talk to the speaker before or after the meeting. Also, many of the same people from the city or region tend to attend these meetings month after month, so you will probably meet some of the same people again and again and have a chance to get acquainted with them.

Publications from organizations usually will have information about regional meetings. In addition, you can find web pages with information about regional or local chapters at of JALT at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/organi.htm#JALT or at the web page listed for JALT above. Information about JALT chapter meetings is also available at http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/main/chaptersnsigs.html. Many regional meetings are also announced in commercial journals.

Publications

Professional organizations usually publish one or more issues of their journal a year and monthly or bimonthly newsletters. Keeping up with these publications helps you keep up with new knowledge in the fields, new theoretical developments, new publications and materials, meeting and conference announcements, etc.

Journals are formal publications and carry research papers, theoretical and practical papers, and book reviews. Among the especially useful journals in the field of English language teaching are *TESOL Quarterly*, *JALT Journal*, *JACET Bulletin*, *Language Laboratory*, *Language Learning*, and *ELT Journal*.

Newsletters carry more news, information, announcements, and short, practical articles. All of the above organizations have newsletters which give information about the activities of the organization and have articles intended to be of interest to their particular membership. *The Language Teacher*, published by JALT, is one of the more informative ones.

Some very large organizations such as TESOL may publish their own books which are distributed by the organization. You usually order them directly from the organization. You can also often get back issues of journals and newsletters.

An organization's publications are available to members. In addition, your school library probably also has some journals and newsletters of ELT organizations. Also, information about journals is available at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/journal.htm.

Other Professional Organizations

The above information is about organizations and publications specifically related to English language teaching, but there are many other organizations in different fields which are related to ELT, such as linguistics, literature, and communication. If you have certain specific interests, it is a good idea to look for an organization related to your interests. You can find them through their journals in libraries, bookstores, etc., and from on-line resources. Information on some such organizations is available at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/Japanese/online/#gakkai.

Commercial Publications

In addition to journals and newsletters published by professional organizations, there are some commercial journals which are published by publishers for general readers. Some professional organizations' publications are also available through bookstores, and you can purchase them even if you are not a member of the organizations. Japanese journals are in many libraries. Foreign ones are in many university libraries. If you buy them, they are cheaper if you subscribe directly to them rather than ordering through bookstores.

Two major journals in Japanese are *Eigo Kyoiku* (*The English Teach-*

ers' Magazine) by Taishukan and *Gendai Eigo Kyoiku* (*Modern English Teaching*) by Kenkyusha. Parts of the latter are available on the web at http://kenkyusha.co.jp/mag/gendai/.

You will find academic books and textbooks at bookstores. Maruzen and Kinokuniya both carry such books. It is a good idea to visit a large bookstore occasionally and see what books are displayed. However, many books are not in bookstores, so it is important to look at the catalogues of different publishers and advertisements of new books in journals and newsletters and to visit publishers' displays at conferences. It is also worth looking at new books in the libraries you use. Publishers send out catalogues to members of organizations, and you can request catalogues from publishers. You can also find web pages of publishers at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/book.htm. Some of the web sites are searchable, so you can enter keywords and get lists of books related to your interests. Also, because they have e-mail addresses for publishers, you can e-mail them and ask questions.

Textbooks are not only good resources as teaching materials, but they give some good ideas for teaching methods, techniques, activities and skills. Teachers can learn a lot from various good textbooks.

On-Line Resources

Recently computers and computer networks have been developed rapidly, there are many resources available on-line. Most of them are free. Some databases are on CD-ROM, and they are getting cheaper and cheaper.

Internet Resources

There are many resources on the Internet. That is, many individuals, libraries, organizations and companies have resources, and you can get access to them using the Internet. There are world wide web sites, mailing lists, information gateways, and commercial and non-commercial search services. These will be discussed briefly here and in greater detail in the next chapter. Lists of links to a wide variety of WWW sites, information about lists, and information about searching on the Internet can be found at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/.

The World Wide Web. The World Wide Web is the largest database in the world, and it is getting larger every day. It is very user-friendly and easy to use. All you have to do is click on indicated places on the screen. You will find an enormous amount of information. Related information is linked, and you can pursue that information just by clicking. There are many search engines, and you can search for information using them. WWW can display characters, pictures, photos, sounds and even videos. Some of them are interactive, and you can respond to them by writing your comments or asking questions. The WWW will continue to grow in the future, and it is worth being acquainted with it. You need to learn strategies to get certain pieces of information as quickly as possible. You can find a large amount of resource materials and also teaching materials on the web.

There are some journals on the web. You can read them for free. *The Internet TESL Journal* in Japan (monthly) (http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj) and *English Teachers' Electronic Newsletter* in Israel (occasional and about bimonthly) (http://www.boker.org.il/eng/etni/) are easy reading and have much useful information. They have many links to a huge number of resources.

There are some commercial web sites which are very useful. There are many games which students can use. There is a vast amount of reading material and information to help in writing materials. Many publishers have their catalogues on the web. We can find new reference books, academic books, and textbooks on the web. There are many newspapers and magazines on the web.

Mailing lists. There are many computer mailing lists for English teachers and students. Mailing lists have a central computer, to which messages are sent. The messages are distributed to everyone subscribed to the mailing lists. On mailing lists, people discuss issues, exchange information and ask questions related to a particular topic. Many lists have archives, and subscribers can get files of previous discussions or of articles and materials that have been placed in the archives. The largest list related to TEFL/TESL is TESL-L, which has more than 19,000 members in over 100 countries. It has a huge archives, where it stores lots of papers, reports and teaching materials. There are nearly 40 other lists for teachers of English. Information about subscribing to TESL-L can be found at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/list/lis-tesl.htm. Information about other ELT-related lists can be found at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/list/lis-tefl.htm.

There are some lists whose purpose is to distribute information about certain topics, such as announcements of new lists or new web pages. You can receive news on the lists. You can subscribe to electronic journals such as English Teachers' Electronic Newsletter in Israel and *TESL-EJ* on line. There are some mailing lists especially for students. Your students can subscribe to those lists and discuss matters with other students all over the world. (See http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/list/lis-stud.htm for information.) There are lists for learning English, learning business English, discussing such subjects as movies, music, or science, etc. There is a list called IECC-Survey, which allows students to do surveys for their class projects. Students can use those lists for their class projects. The British Association of Applied Linguistics has BAALPG for postgraduate students. Students can exchange ideas or things related to their research in their postgraduate programs. Links to many kinds of lists and information about using lists can be found at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/list/lis-stud.htm.

Other resources. For children under 15, Kidlink (http://www.kidlink.org/) has very useful computer network for children to exchange information. There are some mailing lists for English learners. You can encourage your students to communicate with other students using English.

There are many useful resources and teaching materials for English teachers on the Internet. We have made a list of those links at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/teacher.htm. We have included information about background cultures of English, resources, lesson plans, teaching materials, student projects, reference materials for lessons, computer assisted language learning, and useful English teachers' web pages. There are many useful publications by English teachers, both theoretical and practical, on the net, and we have included those links, too.

We have also included links to learning materials which students can use to learn English with or without their teachers' assistance at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/student.htm. Many of them are very interesting and well-made.

Commercial Search Services, Information Gateways, and CD-ROMs. There are some commercial search services for publications, ERIC, dissertation abstracts, newspapers, business information, and so on. Many of them are very useful. If your library has access to commercial databases, it is worth investigating what you can do with them. One problem of this kind of service is the cost. Commercial services, of course, charge for use of their resources, and many of them are very expensive. However, libraries may let their students and faculty members use the search services without charge.

Among the commercial services is NISS, a gateway to British university libraries which allows you to search almost all university libraries as if you were there. (This part of NISS is a non-commercial service.) It can be found at http://www.niss.ac.uk or through telnet at niss.ac.uk. OCLC is another useful service available through NISS. It includes WorldCat (which allows you to search [mostly American] libraries), Article1st (which allows you to search for articles in journals); Content1st (which allows you to look at Tables of Contents of journals), ERIC, and other services. BIDS (http://www.bids.ac.uk or telnet bids.ac.uk) is another useful commercial search service for humanities and the social sciences.

CD-ROMs are getting more popular and cheaper. ERIC and LLBA (Language and Language Behavior Abstracts) are very useful. The ERIC CD-ROM is very cheap, and very useful. You can search close to one million documents, you can get information about where they are available and read abstracts of all of them. Contact information is:

ERIC Processing and Reference Facility
1301 Piccard Drive, Suite 300, Rockville, MD 20850-4305
Phone 301-258-5500 Fax 301-948-3695
e-mail: ericfac@inet.ed.gov

web page: http://www.ed.gov/prog_info/ERIC/

You can search for ERIC documents since 1989 on line at Search ERIC Database (http://ericir.syr.edu/plweb-cgi/fastweb?searchform+ericdb), using keywords, author names, or titles. You can also search and order documents since 1993 at ERIC Document Reproduction Service https://orders.edrs.com/default.htm).

You can order microfiche of more than half of the documents that ERIC lists, and you can find the rest in various journals.

Many dictionaries and teaching materials are available on CD-ROM, and they are not very expensive. More and more materials will become available on CD-ROM, and it is worth paying attention to new CD-ROMs.

Conclusion

There are a great many resources for reference and teaching. However, you need to look for them. One way is through professional organizations. Another is through commercial publications. Another is using a computer or computer network, which will be more important in the future. It may take time to find the resources you really want. However, if you keep looking, you will find faster and more efficient ways to obtain the information you want. It is necessary to invest time, energy and money to look for information, but this is an investment in your profession.

Discussion Questions

Get more information about three different types of resources listed here. What did you learn?

Chapter 18

Using the Internet for Teaching English

Keywords

teaching materials and teaching plans
lists
web journals
keypals
surveys
reference materials
student lists
materials
journals and newsletters
news

Introduction

The Internet is very useful for teaching English. In this chapter, we will introduce you to some of these resources.

Teachers can use it for gathering information for their classes, including teaching plans and materials for classroom use. They can subscribe to mailing lists related to TEFL/TESL, and exchange information with other teachers. They can subscribe to electronic journals or newsletters either by e-mail or using the World Wide Web and keep up with new trends in English teaching, finding new or interesting publications. They can consult with publishers on teaching materials.

In the classroom, teachers can organize "keypals" exchanges, and students can exchange letters with their keypals and have the experience of corresponding with people from all over the world. Students can use a mailing list, IECC-Survey, for conducting surveys for class projects. They can subscribe to student lists to exchange ideas with other students around the world. There are many learning materials on the World Wide Web, and students can use them to study English. They can read news in English using either by e-mail or on the World Wide Web. The World Wide Web can be used to make students' newspapers or newsletters.

Using the Internet for English teaching is very new, and there are few books and papers on the subject, though there are many resources on the Internet. We need to explore ways to find materials on the Internet and experiment with using them to improve our teaching. This articles gives some information about using the Internet.

The Internet for Teachers

Teaching Materials and Teaching Plans

Teachers can use the Internet for gathering information. For example, Martin Luther King is the topic for a class, you can use search engines[*1] to look for information related to him. There are many sites related to him including ones with his photos, information about his life, and the texts of his speeches. There is even a web page made to teach about his birthday, Martin Luther King, Jr. Day (http://www.aec.ukans.edu/LEO/holidays/kingday.html) which has links to materials for teaching and quizzes. The largest mailing list, TESL-L, has a huge archive, and there is a file [HOLIDAYS BIRTHDAYS] which includes a reading passage on King's birthday with some exercises.

If you need additional teaching/learning materials for the class, you can find a quite large number of materials on the web. There are a huge amount of material for listening, reading, writing, grammar, vocabulary, and culture.[*2] You can select appropriate ones for your students' interests and level of English proficiency. There are some teaching plans which include materials that may help you to teach your students.[*3] It is a good idea to go over those materials when you have free time, and classify them according to their topic or how you might use them. Since there is a huge amount of material available on the web, there should be many useful materials for your students, if you look for it.

Useful information for classes you obtain on the World Wide Web is easy to present to the class, if you have a computer which can access the World Wide Web and a large monitor or device to show it. The World

Wide Web makes use of multiple media, and many resources are very realistic, colorful and attractive.

Professional Resources

Teachers can subscribe to mailing lists or electronic journals and read journals available on the web.

Lists. There are many lists for TEFL/TESL, but the largest one is TESL-L. You can obtain concrete information about it at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/list/lis-tesl.htm. It is good to subscribe to TESLCA-L with TESL-L, since you will receive information related to computers, e-mail and the web.

We have found more than 30 lists, which are listed at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/list/lis-tefl.htm. There are many other useful lists English teachers might be interested in.[*4] You can read descriptions of those lists and try subscribing the lists you think might be useful.

In Japan, JALTCALL and EFLJ (in Japanese) are fairly active and discuss English teaching in Japan. The IECC has several mailing lists, and teachers can participate in various projects, look for keypals for their students, or discuss intercultural issues for teaching. There are some specific mailing lists for second language learning or acquisition (SLART-L) and writing (WRICOM).

Subscribing to those lists will get you useful information on conferences, new products, materials, etc., but if you really want to benefit from a list, YOU have to participate in discussions. Ask questions, if you want information. Bring up issues that concern you, and find out what other people think. If you just wait until something useful drops into your lap, you may wait a long time. Also if you subscribe to big lists or many lists, we strongly suggest that you use the digest setting, which means that you receive only one file for each list each day with all the messages for that day, rather than many individual messages.

Web journals. There are a number of journals that appear partially or completely on web pages. Among the useful web journals are *Internet TESLJ* (http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/) in Japan, *English Teachers' Electronic Newsletter* (http://www.w-angle.galil.k12.il/red/etninews/) in

Israel, *Agora Newsletter* (http://www.agoralang.com:2410/agora/agoranews_current.html), *TESL-EJ* (http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESL-EJ/), *The Web Journal of Modern Language Linguistics* (http://www.ncl.ac.uk/˜njw5/), *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching* (http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/ajelt/contents.htm), *English as a Foreign Language Magazine* (http://www.u-net.com/eflweb/home.htm), and *English Teaching Professional* (http://www.edunet.com/etp/index.html). They have their own resources and , in some cases, links to other sites. There are many more around the world.*5 Many of them carry useful articles and announcements. You can also contribute your articles to share your experiences, research findings, lesson plans, and teaching materials with other teachers of English.

Other web sites. You can visit web sites of professional organizations and check on their activities and publications. They have conferences, workshops, publications, etc., for language teachers.*6

Many foreign publishers, particularly American and British publishers, distributors, and large book shops have web pages, and you can find out about their products and get their e-mail addresses. You can order their materials and ask questions by e-mail.*7

The Internet for Students

Keypals

Teachers can arrange keypals for their students, and the students exchange e-mail with keypals individually or as a group, like corresponding with penpals. IECC is a good mailing list to find keypals for K-12, and IECC-HE is good for university students. There are of course other places teachers or students can find key pals.*8

Robb and Tillyer wrote a detailed article about how to carry out this type of project, which explains how to prepare for the project and what orientation to give to students. It is available from the TESL-L archives, and its file name is [PENPAL ADVICE].*9

Surveys

Students can subscribe to IECC-Survey to conduct their own surveys for class projects. If they are interested in wedding customs in certain countries, they can make a questionnaire to ask various questions about wedding customs and post it to the list. They will probably receive some answers, and they can use them as resources for their projects.*10

Reference Materials

Students can use the Internet as a resource for their projects. That is the Internet offers dictionaries or encyclopedias. They can also find thesauruses and style sheets for writing papers.*11

Student Lists

Students can subscribe to student lists. There are ten different lists, and students can participate in general discussions for low and high level English students, or discussions on business, economics, current events, movies, music, sports, science, technology, and learning English.*12 You can give students assignments to obtain certain information on lists, and students can bring the information back to the class. Just telling students to subscribe to these lists may not work well, and there are suggestions for preparing students and helping them get the most out of lists at http://www.latrobe.edu.au/www/education/sl/slhowto.html.

Materials

There are many learning materials to help students to study English. Some of them are just traditional drill types, but some are very creative and attractive, so that students will have higher motivation to learn English. Of course, you can make your own materials and post them on the web. Simple web pages are easy to make, but complicated and artistic web pages are not only difficult but also time-consuming to make.

Journals and Newsletters

Students can read journals or newsletters for students of English. Many of them have readings and fun activities to do as well as useful information. It is worth investigating these and making plans for what your students read, and how you can use the materials for your class.*13

News

Students can get news from various sources on the Internet.

One source of news by e-mail is Daily Brief, a daily summary of U.S. and world news. The Daily Brief is a 2-3 page news summary sent out by e-mail every weekday morning. Included in the Brief are summaries of major news events that occurred during the 24 hours prior to distribution. To subscribe to the Daily Brief, send an empty e-mail message to incinc@tiac.net with "db" (without quotation marks) in the subject line.

Many Japanese newspapers have English news on the web.*14 It is possible to read hundreds of newspapers in English around the world.*15

A simple web page is fairly easy to make. It can be accessed by anyone in the world. Thus, it is a good device to publicize information, for example, making newsletters for students, local people or even people from all over the world. If you learn a little more, you can create fairly artistic web pages which look professional. It is possible to teach students to make newsletters or other information on the web.*16 You can see some examples at http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/links/ESL/Student_Projects/. Also, Tom Robb's article "Web Projects for the ESL/EFL Class" at http://www.kyoto-su.ac.jp/~trobb/projects.html will help you to do such projects.

Chat sites. Students can chat with other people throughout the world using the Internet. For most students, however, chat sites for general use are too difficult. Among the chat sites specifically for English language students are SchMOOze University (http://www.cc.rim.or.jp/~awaji/schMOOze/) and ESL Chat Central (http://www.eslcafe.com/chat/chatpro.cgi). More information about chatting for language students is available at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/chat.htm.

Study abroad information. For students interested in the possibility of studying in another country, the Internet has a great deal of information. Many government agencies and educational institutions put information for such students in their web pages. Links to such web pages can be found at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/study.htm.

Conclusion

As we have shown, the Internet, both e-mail and the World Wide Web, has a great potential to change our language instruction and students' learning of foreign languages. The Internet itself is absolutely free to use if your school has terminals connected to it.

There are many resources on the Internet already, and teachers and students have tried to use them in various ways. However, there has been little research done on how to use the resources most effectively. We need to continue to investigate ways to use the Internet for better language teaching/learning.

Notes

1. Net Search (http://home.netscape.com/home/internet-search.html) is the link to a wide variety of search engines. Among search engines for the World Wide Web, we believe Alta Vista (http://www.altavista.com/) is the most powerful search engine for finding this type of information.

2. "Useful Resources and Learning Materials for Students" in On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication (http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/student.htm).

3. "Useful Resources, Lesson Plans, and Teaching Materials for Teachers" in On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication (http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/teacher.htm). TESL-L has the file in their archives [LESSON PLAN].

4. The table of contents of On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication is at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/.

5. *English Teachers' Electronic Newsletter* and *Agora Newsletter* can be subscribed to by e-mail. You send the message "subscribe il-eng" to majordomo@www1.snunit.k12.il to subscribe to the former and the message "subscribe agoranews" to majordomo@agoralang.com to subscribe to the latter. You will receive only one issue of agoranews at the beginning of each month.

There are many more web and e-mail electronic journals as shown in "Journals and Newsletters in TESL/TEFL, Linguistics, and Communication" in On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/journal.htm.

6. "Organizations and Mailing lists in TESL/TEFL, Linguistics, and Com-

munication" in On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication (http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/organi.htm)

7. Hundreds of web pages are listed or linked in "Publishers, Software Developers, Bookstores, etc., for TESL/TEFL, Linguistics, and Communication" in On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication (http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/book.htm).

8. "Keypal Opportunities for Students" in On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication (http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/keypal.htm).

9. Robb, T., and Tillyer, A. (1993). Electronically yours: Cross-cultural communication through e-mail penpals. TESL-L.

10. IECC-Surveys for students
iecc-surveys-request@stolaf.edu
iecc-surveys-digest-request@stolaf.edu (set digest: I suggest that you to set the list to digest)
Send the following message to either of the above addresses to subscribe to iecc-surveys. Since it is an active list, it is good to subscribe to it with the digest mode.
subscribe iecc-surveys

IECC-SURVEYS is an electronic mailing list where students (and teachers) can post requests for assistance on short-term projects, surveys, and questionnaires. This differs from the IECC-PROJECTS mailing list, which is intended only for teachers seeking classroom partners on specific projects.

11. "ESL: Dictionaries and Reference Materials" at http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/links/ESLDictionaries_and_Reference_Materials/"Reference Materials for Students and Researchers" in On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication at (http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/referenc.htm).

12. In order to use student lists, the teacher has to register the class with Tom Robb at Trobb@cc.kyoto-su.ac.jp. General information is available on the following web page.

"SL-lists: International EFL/ESL email student discussion lists" at http://www.latrobe.edu.au/www/education/sl/sl.html

13. "Useful Resources and Learning Materials for Students" in On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/student.htm

14. The following Japanese newspapers are available in English on the web.

[National Newspapers]

http://www.asahi.com/english/english.html
Asahi Shinbun
http://www.japantimes.co.jp/
The Japan Times Online
http://www.mainichi.co.jp/index-e.html
Mainichi Newspapers
http://www.nikkei.co.jp/enews/
NikkeiNet
http://www.yomiuri.co.jp/index-e.htm
Yomiuri Shinbun

[Local Newspapers]

http://www1.meshnet.or.jp/sanyo-np/sanyo/eindex.html
Sanyo Shimbun
http://www.chunichi.co.jp/index-e.html
Chunichi

[Weekly]

http://www.eal.or.jp/CW/
Chubu Weekly (regional in Nagoya area)
http://www.weeklypost.com/
Weekly Post

[Other]

http://www.twics.com/~stripes/home.html
Pacific Stars and Stripes (American newspaper)

15. The following are links to newspapers throughout the world.

http://www.wfi.fr/volterre/newspapers.html
VOLTERRE-FR: Newspapers OnLine in France & Worldwide
linked to thousands of newspapers and magazines around the world

http://www.cs.vu.nl/~gerben/news.html
The daily news has CNN and hundreds of newspapers from around the world!

16. "Using the Internet" in "On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication" (http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/internet.htm) is useful.

Discussion Questions

Look at some of the resources listed in this chapter. Which do you think would by useful to you? Why?

Chapter 19

Professional Development for English Language Teachers

Keywords

- newsletters and journals
- mailing lists
- professional organizations
- gateways to resources
- publishers and bookstores
- search engines
- learning to use the Internet
- doing research and writing academic papers
- advancing careers

Introduction

The Internet is expanding very rapidly, and more and more people are using it. You can communicate with anyone who has an Internet connection anywhere in the world, as if they were a neighbor. It is a more economical way to communicate than faxes or long distance telephone, and it is much faster than the mail.

There is a massive amount of useful information on the Internet. It is getting to be one of the largest libraries in the world. You can read newspapers, newsletters and journals using the Internet and resources on the Internet can help you with your professional development.

The Internet allows information to cross national borders. More than eighty percent of information on the Internet is in English, and if you could communicate in English, the Internet will be necessary for your profession.

You can also keep up with trends of TESL/TEFL, obtain information of conferences and publications, read many newsletters and journals, exchange ideas with other teachers, and publish papers and articles using the Internet.

You can obtain lesson plans and teaching materials as well as background information useful for content teaching using the Internet. This will help make your classes more interesting and meaningful, so that your students learn English better.

There are resources on the Internet to help you learn to make use of the Internet effectively. It takes time and effort to learn how to use the Internet, but you can learn the basics first and gradually expand your knowledge about the Internet.

In order to pursue an academic career, you need to publish papers and articles. There are many resources for doing research and writing academic papers on the Internet.

In this chapter, we will show some ways that you can use the Internet to develop yourself professionally.

Developing Knowledge and Keeping up with Trends in TESL/TEFL

Newsletters and Journals

You can read many newsletters and journals related to ELT, linguistics and communication. At http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/journal.htm, there is a list of newsletters and journals with some descriptions. The list covers most newsletters and journals in the fields of ELT, linguistics, and communication which are either available on line or for which there is information on line. Many of them are available only in the print form, but you can get information about them on line. In some cases, however, publications are available on line as well as in print, or only on line. The number of publications on line has increased rapidly. Some of them are available at web sites, and some are sent out by e-mail, and some are available both ways. We have listed some major ones in Appendix A.

Through these publications, you can find information about new publications, calls for papers, announcements, and conference information, as well as results of research, new theories, other teachers' experiences, etc. They are good sources of information about what is going on in these fields. Some of them carry lesson plans and even teaching materials, which you can use in your classes. You can contribute your lesson plans, teaching materials, useful information, and the findings of your research. There are also some publications for students (http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/student.htm#journal). There are many useful learning materials in those publications.

Mailing Lists

Mailing lists are a convenient way of communicating with other teachers in TESL/TEFL. TESL-L is the largest list in the ELT field, and it has some 20,000 members. Information is available at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/list/lis-tesl.htm. It is worth subscribing to TESL-L and TESLCA-L. You can get a lot of information, particularly computer-related information. You can participate in discussions or ask questions. The TESL-L archives has a huge collection of materials such as papers, articles, collections of discussions on a certain topic, bibliographies, reports, lesson plans, and teaching materials, and you can download them to read or use for teaching.

There are many other lists related to ELT, and you can find more than 30 of them listed at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/list/lis-tefl.htm. There are some specialized ones, such as SLART-L for second language acquisition, WRICOM for writing using computers, EST-L for English for science and technology, IECC, IECC-HE, IECC-Project for finding keypals for our students, and NETEACH-L and LLTI for using computers for language teaching. There are some local ones such as JALTCALL and EFLJ for Japan, IL-ENG for Israel, ARKTESL and SCOLT in the southern part of the United States. Besides subscribing to TESL-L and TESLCA-L, it is a good idea to subscribe to specialized ones related to your interests and to regional ones for your country or area. You can "meet" many people with interests similar to yours and exchange information and ideas using the mailing lists.

Some mailing lists have a web page, and they usually have some useful resources on those pages. We have listed them at http://

ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/organi.htm#mail.

If you know the name of the list and cannot find its e-mail address or want to use keywords to find lists you might be interested in, LISZT (Directory of E-mail Discussion Lists) is a searchable list of lists found at http://www.liszt.com/. It has a database of more than 90,000 lists. Also, "Subject-based listing of scholarly and professional e-conferences" at http://n2h2.com/KOVACS/Sindex.html contains lists of lists organized by subject. You can choose a topic area, and see a list of lists related to that topic. You can click on the name of a list and get information about the purpose of the list, how to subscribe, etc."[1]

Professional Organizations

One of the best ways to keep up with trends of profession is to join professional organizations and read their publications and attend their conferences. Many of them have web pages, and you can find out what they are doing. The list of professional organizations is at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/organi.htm.

Gateways to Resources

If you are interested in testing, communication or literature, there are gateways which list links to useful web pages. Some of these can be found at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/test.htm for testing, http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/communi.htm for communication, and http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/literatu.htm for literature.

Publishers and Bookstores

For language teachers and scholars in academia, publications are very important, and we need to pay attention to new publications. One of the ways to find out about new publications is through publishers' catalogs. There is a list which covers more than two hundred publishers, software developers, dealers and bookstores in the world at http://ilc2. doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/book.htm. Some of them have search engines, and you can search for books by topic, author or title. Most of them have e-mail addresses, and you can ask for information, and sometimes you can order products through e-mail.

Search Engines

If you want to find information about a particular topic on the Internet, you can use search engines. LISZT, described above, is the largest search engine for mailing lists. Other search engines, as well as links to other web resources, can be found at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/referenc.htm. One of the largest and most useful search engine for the World Wide Web is AltaVista. You will find information about using it efficiently at http://www.ling.lancs.ac.uk/search/example.htm. Another new, useful search engine is called Ask Jeeves (http://www.askjeeves.com). Users can ask questions in natural language (for example, Where can I find information about tourist attractions in London?) and find links to sites that may answer the question.

Improving Your Teaching

In order to improve your teaching, you can get information and discuss issues with other teachers on the mailing lists or web sites. You can subscribe to many newsletters and journals using the Internet. You can obtain lesson plans, teaching materials, and lessons using the Internet. You find them at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/teacher.htm and http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/student.htm. You can get access to dictionaries, thesauruses, encyclopedias, and other reference materials at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/referenc.htm.

We have written an article on using the Internet to teach English, and it explains what we can do with the Internet to improve our teaching English.[*2]

Learning to Use the Internet

In order to use the Internet to improve your professional knowledge and skills, it is necessary to learn about the Internet, at least to some extent. "Using the Internet" gives some useful sites on the World Wide Web.[*3] There are many tutorials to help you learn to use the Internet, mailing lists, the World Wide Web, and so on. There are some references to remind you of important information. Those resources are well written, and they are useful for self-study.

Patrick Crispen's Internet Roadmap at http://www.brandonu.ca/~ennsnr/Resources/Roadmap/Welcome.html gives an overview of the Internet. The most basic resources on the Internet are e-mail, mailing lists, and the World Wide Web. Telnet and ftp are also useful. If you can make some basic html (the code that web pages are written in) files to make your own World Wide Web pages, that is very useful for creative work such as self-publishing, making teaching materials, providing resources for students and teachers, etc.

Doing Research and Writing Academic Papers

If you are interested in doing research, "Reference Materials for Students and Researchers" has many useful links."[4]

There are also massive resources available on the web to help you with writing. These include the APA and MLA style sheets, dictionaries, thesauruses, encyclopedias, grammar handbooks, etc. There are some links of articles on writing essays, research papers, improving writing, and so on. Since writing is not easy, and everyone has to improve writing, it is worth reading some of those articles linked to above site.

If you write good reports, lesson plans, articles, and research papers and want to share them with others, you can send them to ERIC"[5], TESL-L archives"[6], or journals or newsletters we have already explained.

Advancing Careers

If you are interested in finding a job, you can often find job announcements on different mailing lists. TESLJB-L is dedicated to that purpose. LINGUIST and other lists often carry such announcements. One of the good gateways is at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/job.htm.

If you are interested in teaching in Japan, the best gateway is at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/teij.htm. There is a lot of information on teaching English, including general information, JET programs, visa information, travel and living information, newspapers on the line, professional organizations and mailing lists, schools, various essays on living and teaching in Japan, etc.

Conclusion

We have discussed how the Internet is useful for keeping up with developments in your profession and for improving the teaching of English. Most materials and services on the Internet are free, and if you have a computer which is connected to the Internet and which has a browser for the World Wide Web, you have access to a great deal of useful information which can help you to develop professionally.

It is not difficult to learn to use the Internet, and although it takes a little time and effort to learn how to use a computer, it is well worth doing it. You do not need to learn everything about the Internet. You can start with the basics, particularly on the World Wide Web, which is user friendly. Then you can learn to use e-mail and subscribe to mailing lists and communicate with other English teachers.

Notes

1. There are more useful www sites for finding mailing lists in On-line Resources and Journals Related to ELT and Linguistics at On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication

2. Kitao, K, & Kitao, S. K. (1996). Using the Internet for teaching English. In K. Kitao, & S. K. Kitao, On-line Resources and Journals Related to ELT and linguistics (4th ed.). http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/internet/art-use.htm

3. Kitao, K., & Kitao, S. K. (1996). Internet. In K. Kitao & S. K. Kitao, On-line resources and journals related to ELT and linguistics (4th ed.) at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/internet/art-inte.htm.

4. Kitao, K., & Kitao, S. K. (1996). Reference materials for students and researchers. In K. Kitao & S. K. Kitao, On-line resources and journals related to ELT and linguistics (4th ed.) at http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/referenc.htm.

5. ERIC Clearinghouse on LANGUAGES AND LINGUISTICS (FL)

Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL)
1118 22nd Street, N.W.
Washington, DC 20037-0037
Telephone: 202-429-9292
FAX: 202-659-5641
Internet: eric@cal.org

Languages and language sciences. All aspects of second language instruction and learning in all commonly and uncommonly taught languages, including English as a second language. Bilingualism and bilingual education. Cultural education in the context of second language learning, including intercultural communication, study abroad, and international educational exchange. All areas of linguistics, including theoretical and applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, and psycholinguistics. Includes input from Adjunct ERIC Clearinghouse on Literacy Education for Limited-English-Proficient Adults.

6. You can send the manuscript by e-mail to Susan Simon at stscc@cunyvm.cuny.edu

Appendix A
Newsletters and Journals in TESL/TEFL

http://www.agoralang.com:2410/agora/agoranews_current.html
Agora Newsletter

http://www.cuhk.edu.hk/ajelt/
Asian Journal of English Language Teaching

http://www.man.ac.uk/IATEFL/iatefl_newsletters.html
Selected materials from the IATEFL Newsletter

http://www.lc.tut.ac.jp/callej/callej.html
CALL Electronic Journal

http://www.man.ac.uk/IATEFL/review.html
CALL Review (The Journal of the IATEFL Computer Special Interest Group)

http://www.humnet.ucla.edu/humnet/teslal/brinton/CJGU.htm
CATESOL Journal

http://www.december.com/cmc/mag/
Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) Magazine

http://www.edunet.com:80edunet/ednews.html#language
EDUNET INTERNATIONAL'S NEWS STAND

http://www.u-net.com/eflweb/home.htm
English as a Foreign Language Magazine

http://www.w-angle.galil.k12.il/red/etninews/
English Teachers' Electronic Newsletter

http://www.etprofessional.com/index.html
English Teaching Professional

http://www.u-net.com/eflweb/home.htm
English as a Foreign Language Magazine

http://cis.nmclites.edu/~banfi/MATSDA.html#fol
FOLIO

http:// langlab.uta.edu/iall/journal/
The IALL Journal

http://ipisun.jpte.hu/~joe/iatefl/newsletter.html
IATEFL-Hungary Newsletter (Web Edition)

http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/
The Internet TESL Journal : iteslj@aitech.ac.jp

http://www.helsinki.fi/science/optek/
Interpersonal Computing and Technology Journal

http://jcmc.huji.ac.il/
Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication

http://english.ttu.edu/kairos/
KAIROS

http://polyglot.cal.msu.edu/llt/
Language Learning and Technology

The Language Teacher Online
http://langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/pub/tlt/

http://www.nobis.com/ll/
LAPSUS LINGUAE - International Journal On Language Teaching

http://polyglot.lss.wisc.edu/mlj/
Modern Language Journal

http://www.cltr.uq.oz.au:8000/oncall/
ON-CALL The Australian Journal of Computers and Language Education

http://www.hull.ac.uk/cti/pubs.htm#ReCALL Newsletter
ReCALL Newsletter ISSN 1353 1921

http://schoolnet2.carleton.ca/sne/e/snenews/index.html
SNE News

http://www-writing.berkeley.edu/TESL-EJ/
(USA)

http://www.kyoto-su.ac.jp/information/tesl-ej/
(Japan)
TESL-EJ

http://www.ncbe.gwu.edu/miscpubs/tesol/
TESOL Journal and TESOL Quarterly (Selected Articles)

http://philo.ucdavis.edu/LINGUISTICS/linghp36.html
Topics in Language, Culture, and Cognition

http://www.ncl.ac.uk/~njw5/
The Web Journal of Modern Language Linguistics

http://www.ualberta.ca/~german/ejournal/ejournal.html
"Zeitschrift fuer Interkulturellen Fremdsprachenunterricht" No. 1

Appendix B

Mailing Lists Related to Language Teaching Which Have Web Pages

http://www.indigo.ie/egt/langlist.html
Computer E-mail Lists for Individual Languages, or, The List of Language Lists
Prepared by Bernard Comrie & Michael Everson
Version 2.11 (1998-09-04)

http://www.cibnor.conacyt.mx/est/est.html
(Hong Kong)
http://www.wfi.fr/est/est.html
(France)
EST-L (Teachers of English for Science and Technology)

http:// tile.net/lists/flacl.html
(FLAC-L) Language Across the Curriculum

http://www.cortland.edu/www/flteach/
FLTEACH

http://www.stolaf.edu/network/iecc/
Intercultural E-Mail Classroom Connections

http://info.ox.ac.uk/departments/langcentre/langlists.html
List of Language Lists

http://carla.acad.umn.edu/CATlinks.html
LTEST-L

http://polyglot.lss.wisc.edu/IALL/LLTI.html
LLTI: Language Learning and Technology

http://lps.lexingtonma.org/Shelley/Foreignmail.html
Mailing Lists for Foreign Language Teachers

http://beam.cop.fi/ejohnson/mail_lst.htm
Mailing lists for FL/SL teachers and students

http://thecity.sfsu.edu/~funweb/neteach.htm
NETEACH-L

Discussion Questions

Choose ten of the resources listed there that you think would be useful for your professional development. Explain why you think they would be useful.

Appendix

On-Line Resources for Linguists and Language Teachers

While the Internet is a useful source of information for language teachers and linguists, it is often difficult to find particular information or types of resources. In order to help solve this problem, "On-Line Resources and Journals Related to ELT, Linguistics, and Communication" was developed. This web site has information about various aspects of using the Internet and specifically how language teachers can use the Internet professionally. It also has information about how to subscribe to and use the resources of a large number of discussion lists for teachers, researchers, and students.

In addition, this page links you to a huge number of different types of web pages that are potentially useful to language teachers, including lesson plans for classes; activities and exercises for students; web pages for organizations, publishers, and journals; reference materials; job information; information about contacting keypals; and links related to language testing. There is also information included about doing online searches for academic papers and about useful journals for linguists and language teachers.

In the sections on mailing lists and web pages, each category has an introduction that explains what is included in that category and how to use the resources efficiently. Before using the category, it is best to read this introduction.

The following is the table of contents of this resource, along with URLs for some individual sections or resources. There are further explanations in parentheses, in some cases.

On-Line Resources and Journals: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication
http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Part One — On-Line Resources

I. Introduction
  1. Introduction: How to Use these Resources
  2. Using the On-Line Resources for Postgraduate Studies

II. Using the Internet

1. Internet
2. Lists (Mailing Lists)
3. World Wide Web (WWW)
4. Publishing Your Papers Using the Internet

For TESL/TEFL

5. Professional Development for English Language Teachers
6. Using the Internet for Teaching English
7. Publishing Your Papers Using the Internet

http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/list/

III. Useful Mailing Lists for TEFL/TESL, Linguistics, and Communication

Using "Useful Mailing Lists for TEFL/TESL, Linguistics, and Communication"

First List to Subscribe to (Practicing Commands for the Listserv Program)

1. Using LINGUIST for Research
2. Using TESL-L for Research and Teaching English

Useful Lists for TESL/TEFL, Foreign Languages, Linguistics and Communication

3. Useful Lists for TEFL/TESL (almost 40 lists)
4. Useful Lists for Foreign Languages and Foreign Studies (languages other than English and area studies)
5. Useful Lists for Linguistics
6. Language Related Mailing Lists on WWW
7. Mailing Lists for Communication

Other Useful Lists

8. Useful Lists for Use of Computers for Education
9. Useful Lists for Information
10. Useful Lists for Looking for Jobs
11. Lists of Mailing Lists
12. Other Useful Lists

Lists for Students

13. Student Lists: Useful Lists for Teaching/Learning English and Japa-

nese (lists for postgraduate students in linguistics and for students of English and Japanese language)

http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/online/www/

IV. Useful World Wide Web (WWW) Sites

Using the World Wide Web

1. Web Sites We Recommend that You Visit (useful web sites with many links)

For TESL/TEFL, Linguistics, and Communication

2. Organizations and Mailing Lists in TESL/TEFL, Linguistics, and Communication
3. Journals and Newsletters in TESL/TEFL, Linguistics, and Communication
4. Publishers, Software Developers, Bookstores, etc., for TESL/TEFL, Linguistics, and Communication
5. Using the Internet (links to sites that help you use the Internet efficiently, write your own web pages, etc.)
6. Reference Materials for Students and Researchers (links to style sheets; dictionaries, thesauruses, etc.; help with writing; search engines and searchable sites; mass media-related sites; university sites; and so on)

For TESL/TEFL and Linguistics

7. Jobs in TESL/TEFL and Linguistics

For TESL/TEFL

8. Useful Resources, Lesson Plans, and Teaching Materials for Teachers (links to various useful sites, including information about English-speaking cultures, reference materials for teachers, sites related to computer-assisted language learning, and so on)
9. Language Testing
10. Keypal Opportunities for Students (sites where students can find keypals [e-mail pen pals, either through their teacher or on their own])
11. Information on the US (links to information about such topics as education, geography, government, and history)
12. Literature (links to sites related to authors, literature that can be found on-line, and so on)

13. Teaching English in Japan (links to sites related to Japan in general and the English language teaching situation in particular)

For Linguistics
14. Linguistics

For Communication
15. Communication

For ESL/EFL Students
16. Useful Resources and Learning Materials for Students
17. Study Abroad

18. On-Line Chat Information and Chat Sites

Japanese
19. Japanese WWW Sites
You need to use a computer which can read Japanese characters.

New
20. New WWW Sites
These will be included in our web pages when we update them.

V. Other On-Line Resources

Search Services
Internet Gateway: Using niss.ac.uk
Lexis-Nexis (Worldwide Database of Newspapers, Wire Services, and Broadcasting Transcripts)
Computer Search in the Library (Lancaster University)

Part Two — Archives

ERIC documents [US]
Publications in TESL-L Archives [US]
Selected Publications on WWW

http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/class/material/
Class Materials

http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/et/
Reports on Educational Tours — S. Kathleen Kitao and Kenji Kitao

http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/brit/
British Express—Newsletter — Kenji Kitao, Editor

http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/teflnews/
TEFL NEWS
http://ilc2.doshisha.ac.jp/users/kkitao/library/
TEFL Virtual Library

An adapted version of this web page was published as:
Kitao, K. (1998). *Internet Resources: ELT, Linguistics, and Communication*. Tokyo: Eichosha. (ISBN 4-268-00298-7 C3082)

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著　者　北尾S. キャスリーン
　　　　北尾謙治
発行者　加藤昌雄

発行所　東京都千代田区神田神保町2-28
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